
T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

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Isaaci Newtoni Opera quæ extant omnia. Commentariis illustrabat Samuel Horsley, LL.D. R. S. S. &c. 4to. 5l. 5s. Subscription for the whole Set. Nichols, Conant, &c.

THE works of Newton have been considered, for near a century past, as the foundation of all genuine philosophical theory. They have not, however, as yet been collected into one general publication. Indeed, many commentaries have been written by very learned men on particular treatises, * but few of them worthy of the great author. Some have contented themselves with giving a gross and popular conception of such parts only as were obvious to the senses, and adapted to common understandings; whilst others, going a step farther, have given a compilation of such of the elementary parts of mathematics as might exhibit to students, not initiated in them, a crude view of the subjects commented upon.

Experience has shewn us the insufficiency of such hasty and imperfect methods of acquiring elementary knowledge; methods which have not only been found inadequate to their proposed end, but have been essentially detrimental to the progress of science itself.

In the first place, by endeavouring to deliver physical doctrines independent of mathematical principles, they have given rise to innumerable and important errors; and, in the next place, by reducing the study of mathematics to a kind of me-

* The commentary on the Principia, written by two French regular priests, M. le Seur and M. Jacquier, has great reputation, and is esteemed a capital work.

chanical practice, they have occasioned a very general neglect of that elegance, perspicuity, and comprehension, which distinguished the ancients, and which was so remarkable in the works of Newton.

The design of the present commentary is very different from any that has hitherto appeared on the works of Newton. The learned commentator has taken particular care to advertise his readers that it is intended only for such as are sufficiently conversant in these studies to read the works of any mathematical writer, without other embarrassment than that which the novelty of his inventions, or the abstract nature of his subject, may occasion. It may, therefore, be considered as a kind of *Philosophical Commentary*; such, indeed, as seemed best adapted to accompany a complete edition of the author's works, and to give to readers thoroughly conversant in geometrical subjects, that occasional illustration which the unfinished state of some of his writings, the brevity with which he treats some subjects, and the novelty as well as abstruseness of some of his doctrines, seemed to demand.

That such a commentary, if properly executed, and avoiding, at the same time, trite and common investigations, cannot be very diffuse, must be evident to geometrical readers; and it must be the less difficult, as those of the great author's inventions, which occasioned the greatest difficulties at their first introduction, have long since been so thoroughly discussed, and are become so generally known, that it would be, perhaps, neither for the honour of the author or the editor, to be too copious in the explanation of them.

The first volume only of Dr. Horsley's expected edition is now before the public; which, though it varies considerably in its distribution and appendices from the original form of his proposals, will, perhaps, on that account, be found to be more judiciously arranged, and more acceptable to the public. The chief alterations are these; first, he has omitted some of those additional tracts already published by Robins, Pemberton, and others, and which are well known; and he has supplied that omission by two new treatises of his own. To this he seems to have been induced by the redundancy of his materials, and the necessity of giving some such supplement as the treatises above mentioned to the analytical works of the author. The other considerable alteration he has made in his plan, is the referring to a future volume the tract *De Systemati Mundi*, and such other of the lesser pieces of Newton, whether in the *Philosophical Transactions*, or elsewhere, as being of a physical or mixed nature, would have been improperly placed in the present volume, among tracts of pure mathematics; an alteration so judicious that it speaks for itself.

The present volume, therefore, which is intended to contain the whole of the works of Newton in pure mathematics, is distributed in the following order.

- ‘ 1. Arithmetica Universalis.
- ‘ 2. De Rationibus primis ultimisque.
- ‘ 3. De Analyfi per *Æquationes* numero Terminorum Infinitas.
- ‘ 4. Excerpta ex Epistolis ad Series et Fluxiones pertinentia.
- ‘ 5. De Quadraturâ Curvarum.
- ‘ 6. Artis Analyticæ Specimina, vel Geometria Analytica.
- ‘ 7. Methodus Differentialis.
- ‘ 8. Enumeratio Linearum tertii Ordinis.

To which are added, as an Appendix, by the editor, two Tracts:

- ‘ 1. Logistica Infinitorum.
- ‘ 2. Geometria Fluxionum.’

It is to be lamented, that the first and most considerable of these treatises, the *Arithmetica Universalis*, was left by its great author in a state so unfinished and imperfect. It is well known to mathematicians, that this work is little more than the substance of lectures delivered by the author, when professor at Cambridge, and probably never subjected to his last revision. It is not in itself deficient in perspicuity, but seems to be immethodical in its arrangement, and to require a very copious supplement, to render it a complete introduction to analytical mathematics; as it is rather a collection of detached pieces, than a regular continued treatise. The editor seems to have been very sensible both of the necessity of a supplement to this important work, and of the difficulty of giving it by way of comment to this edition; and from the abstract (inserted in his preface) of a supplement to this work, which he has actually prepared, it appears, that it must equal, if not exceed it in bulk. The necessity, therefore, that he was under of referring this supplement to future consideration, obliged him to confine himself at present to a brief commentary; in which he has at least fulfilled the proper duty of an editor, by illustrating what his author *has* done; though he has abundantly shewn in the above mentioned abstract, how capable he is to supply what he has *not* done.

But as this is not, in an edition of the works, so much his immediate task, he has contented himself with such occasional elucidations and remarks as may render this treatise more interesting to the scholar and the geometrician.

The algebraical works of Vieta, one of the most elegant mathematical writers since the ancients, are so little known, that the reader will be pleased to see so much of his inventions as are occasionally interspersed in the notes to this treatise: in

fact, he was one of the earliest improvers of modern analysis, and has a just claim to many discoveries which have negligently been attributed to succeeding writers. Among these are all the rules for the transforming of equations, *by changing their signs, by augmenting or diminishing their roots by a given quantity, by multiplying or dividing them by a given number, &c.* the theory and fundamental precepts of which are to be found in Vieta's two treatises *De Recognitione & de Emendatione Aequationum*; but are more fully treated in Descartes's Geometry.

It is to Vieta also that we owe, as the learned commentator has shewn, the grounds of that discovery of the genesis of equations, so important for ascertaining their limits, viz. *that the higher equations are generated by the multiplication of the more simple ones; and that the coefficients of the second term are equal to the sum of the roots with the signs changed, of the third term to the aggregate of the rectangles between every two roots, of the fourth to the aggregate of the solids between every three roots, &c.*

But Vieta, though he had established this of equations, whose roots are all possible and positive, did not seem aware of its being a general property of all equations whatsoever. The first who had observed and affirmed this, was Albertus Girard, an author often mentioned, but whose writings are so rare as scarcely to be known; the commentator has quoted the whole passage from Albertus on this subject, which is extremely curious, and he shews, at the same time, that it was very unjustly ascribed to Harriott by Wallis and others, since Harriot plainly appears not to have been aware of it in its general application.

Of the works of Albertus Girard, the editor has made great use; throwing many hints on the early history and gradual progress of algebra; among which he has been particular in ascribing to Albert Girard the designation of surd quantities by powers with fractional exponents, as \sqrt{ab} by $\overline{ab}^{\frac{1}{2}}$, $\sqrt[3]{a^2b}$ by $\overline{a^2b}^{\frac{1}{3}}$, &c. an invention of great utility, and now generally adopted. But what is particularly curious, is, that he has shewn how, from these inventions of Girard, another new kind of notation took its rise, viz. in which expressions are design-

nated by surd indices, as $\overline{ab}^{\frac{2}{5}}$ or $\overline{a^3b+9a^2x^2}^{\sqrt{3}}$. These the editor calls *irrational irrationals*, as being a new species of quantity, irrational in a double sense. Of the use of these expressions, which were invented by Newton, and afterwards applied by Leibnitz to the *Calculus Exponentialis*, vid. Com. Epist. p. 189.

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Perhaps it were to be wished, that the Doctor had illustrated his comment with demonstrations of some of the rules and methods in the *Arithmetica Universalis*, which the author has delivered aphoristically and without demonstration. But to have done this wherever demonstration was wanting, would have required the greatest part of that supplemental treatise of which he has given us an abstract; and besides, it has been already done by several able writers, sufficient for any purposes of necessary use. It will not be found that the present commentary is defective in illustration, where it was consistent with brevity; and it will, perhaps, upon the whole be found the most adequate to an undertaking in which the whole works of Newton are to be comprised, of any that could have been given.

To the remaining tracts in this volume the editor has prefixed a very useful monition, concerning the order in which they ought to be read; so as to form, together with the supplemental pieces of the editor, a complete introduction to that species of mathematics called by foreigners, the sublime geometry.

The first is an extract of eleven lemmatae, from the first book of the *Principia*, of the doctrine of *Prime and Ultimate Ratios*. This being no where treated by the author, but in his great physical work, the demonstrations of which are founded on it, the editor has judiciously extracted it in this place, to render more perfect the elementary arrangement of the works of Newton; and has added a comment, in which he has explained the genuine principles of this method with great perspicuity and geometrical precision. In this he has shewn what is to be understood by the *ultimate equality of magnitudes*, and the *ultimate identity of ratios*, so accurately as to leave no room for misconception; and has thereby sufficiently obviated, though without a particular discussion, the objections that have been made to this method for its supposed deficiency in geometrical strictness; objections which could never have arisen if its principles had been rightly understood. To the 4th lemma, he has subjoined some ingenious corollaries, concerning the ultimate proportions of such curves as have a common axis; and has shewn very elegantly the general application of this method to the mensuration of curvilinear spaces.

To the second of the miscellaneous tracts, or, the *Analysis per Aequationes numero Terminorum Infinitas*, the principal illustration which the editor has given, is a most elegant and strictly geometrical demonstration of rule 1, taken from Fermat, and applied by him to the quadrature of the hyperbola and para-

bola by way of example; from which he deduces a general canon for applying it universally. Fermat's demonstration is founded on a short theorem, which he assumes as a postulate, the demonstration of which is supplied by the editor. He has also shewn, what (being mentioned only in a parenthesis by Newton) seemed to require some illustration, how the quadra-

ture of the curve whose ordinate is $\frac{\sqrt{1+ax^2}}{\sqrt{1-bx^2}} = y$, serves to

rectify the ellipsis, as a specimen of the facility with which the geometrical constructions of problems are sometimes deducible from the Newtonian calculus. But he seems to have reserved his discussions on these subjects in this place, to resume them with more copiousness and propriety in those which immediately follow, on the doctrines of series and fluxions.

These contain only such a part of the *Commercium Epistolicum*, as tend to illustrate the invention, or the leading uses of the Newtonian methods; which seems to have been the editor's rule in his arrangement of the present volume.

As upon these the editor appears to have bestowed an extraordinary attention, it will be proper to observe a little more particularly what they contain, and how far they have been illustrated in the commentary. The first is from Newton's first letter to Oldenburgh, extracted as far as it treats of the *binomial theorem*, and the operations to be performed by it. As a comment to this extract is given a demonstration of this famous theorem from Raphson's *History of Fluxions*.

The second extract is from the second letter to Oldenburg, and is the whole of the second fragment published by Jones. This treats of the invention of series by means of the parallelogram, and of the inversion of series.

The third is from the epistle to Wallis on the *Extraction of the Roots of fluxionary Equations*. In the notes to the second extract is added, the theorem of De Moivre for extracting the root of an infinite equation, or, as it may be called, for reducing two series into one: for the demonstration of this theorem, we are referred to Mac Laurin's *Algebra*, Part II. c. 10, as we are also for the demonstration of Newton's two theorems for the reversion of series, and of the rules given in this third extract.

The fourth extract is the remainder of the fragment of the fourth letter to Oldenburg, published by Jones; being the application of the doctrine of series to the solution of problems. In the notes to this extract, the editor has displayed his geometrical skill and invention very eminently. He first explains
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with great clearness the method of obtaining the trigonometrical series of Newton, which teaches to find the arc from the right or versed sine, and *vice versa*: he next gives an explanation of the Gregorian series for finding the arc from the tangent, and *vice versa*; and proceeds afterwards to a most elegant geometrical demonstration of those admirable inventions of Gregory, the series whereby he expresses the logarithmic secant and tangent in powers of the arc, and *vice versa* the length of the arc in terms of the logarithmic secant and tangent, without any reference to the natural numbers. These series are given in the *Commerc. Epistol.* but without demonstrations; nor do we remember ever to have seen any, except a very inadequate explication, which the inventor himself has given us, and which scarcely can be called a demonstration. The next demonstration which the editor gives, is to shew how Newton's series for multiplying or dividing an arc in a given proportion, by a change of the signs, serves for multiplying or dividing the hyperbolic sectors as well as the arcs, and to explain that affinity between the circle and the hyperbola, derived from the consideration of this series, which Mr. Cotes has made the foundation of his celebrated *Harmonia Mensurarum*.

The analogies between the conic sections are so remarkable, that it is not surprising they have engaged the attention of many writers: it has happened, however, that most of those who have attended to them, have treated them rather algebraically than geometrically; there are extant, however, some very elegant propositions in some of the early geometrical writers on these analogies; particularly in Vinzenzia Viviani's treatise *de Maximis et Minimis*, and who has also in his other work, *de Locis Solidis*, considered very extensively the more striking analogies between the figures of these curves according to their *geometrical description*. The algebraists have, besides, fallen on certain analogies between the *equations* of the conic sections, to explain which geometrically, required a still farther investigation of the properties of the curves; particularly that relation between the ellipsis and hyperbola, which they express by calling the hyperbola an ellipsis with a negative axis. This has not, that we know of, been explained before the very elegant demonstration which is here given of it by the editor; who has also shewn that all *formulae* which are general in the one of these curves, may for the most part be accommodated to the other, and also to the parabola. Though the general principle of this demonstration is the same with that of Viviani, it is very probable, from the different form of it, and the different use it is applied to, that these propositions of the

ingenious Florentine were unknown to the learned editor; nor if they had been known to him, is he to be deemed less original in the application of them to explain such properties of the conics as had hitherto been expressed by algebra alone. The demonstration which follows of Mr. Cotes's most elegant construction (in Harm. Mens. P. I. Scoli Gen.) of the problem for finding the length of a parabolic arc, is masterly and ingenious in a very high degree, and must be acceptable to all lovers of geometrical writing. And the explanation which follows, how Newton attained to the series for the second segment of the spheroid, is so subtle an investigation, that it does great credit to his talents in another way.

We have been diffuse in the examination of the comment on this extract, as it contains many instances of the editor's skill and industry; in which it will be observed by competent judges, that he has deduced every series from the nature of the particular curve to which it is applied; by which he has given the justest and clearest illustration that these subjects, generally reckoned abstruse, could receive; and has reduced the theory of series, as well as their application, to a degree of perspicuity, of which many who have been well versed in the mechanical habits of calculation, have had no idea.

The editor concludes his observations on the doctrine of series by shewing, from genuine principles, founded in strict reasoning, the truth of Newton's method of deriving approximate constructions of problems from them; of which we have examples in *Huygens de Quad. Circ.* and elsewhere. It is presumed, that both the student and the more advanced geometrician, will find in the whole of the editor's comment on this part of the author's works, a complete supplement and illustration of what was wanting or obscure through the brevity of the great author; so as to elucidate this important branch of mathematics in a manner worthy of the character of the author, and answerable to the reputation which the learned editor has long since held among geometricians both at home and abroad.

The book of *Quadratures* is also illustrated considerably by the labours of the editor. After giving, from the posthumous work of Dr. Robert Simson, a very elegant and simple demonstration of the formula for the fluxion of x^n , he proceeds to give a more strict explication of Newton's first rule for finding an equation to express the relation of fluxions from a given equation expressing the relation of the fluents; in this the editor has shewn the truth of Newton's demonstration, at the same time that he has deduced it in a more perspicuous form, and cleared it from all expressions borrowed from the ungeometrical

metrical method of indivisibles, which Newton, in compliance, perhaps, with the bad taste of the age, or studious of brevity, had sometimes condescended to adopt, and particularly in the present instance. The demonstration of the fourth prop. is supplied by the editor; and the rules annexed to the fifth prop. are also demonstrated. In the expression of the ordinate in the fifth rule, the editor has followed Raphson's emendation, who

gives it thus $\frac{3q^5 - q^4x + 9q^3x^2 - q^2x^3 - 6qx^4}{q^2 - x^2 \times q^3 + q^2x - qx^2 - x^3}^{\frac{1}{2}}$, which has also

been followed by Mr. Stewart, of Aberdeen, in his commentary on the book of quadratures: it had been given very erroneously both in the first edition, and in Jones's, which the editor has shewn by observing, that neither of those editions give an expression which agrees with the expression of the same ordinate when reduced, as the rule directs, to the denominator $R^{\frac{4}{3}}$.

The 6th prop. is demonstrated by Mr. Stewart, and his demonstration is here given. Under the first case of prop. 7. the editor has cleared up a difficulty which has given occasion to much misconception of the author's meaning, and which seems to have arisen chiefly from the brevity of his expression: it is where he speaks of the defect of the terms θ , $\theta + \lambda n$, $\theta + 2\lambda n$, &c. see p. 54 of Jones's edition.

The second case, the editor has demonstrated from Maclaurin; but though he calls this Maclaurin's demonstration (as the principle of its derivation is the same), it is deduced here with so much greater perspicuity and accuracy than we find it in Maclaurin's work, that the editor may claim a considerable merit from the illustration he has given of it: see Maclaurin's Fluxions, art. 790. To facilitate the practical uses of this proposition, the editor has added certain canonical equations to each case of it, which are very convenient; and has shewn how his demonstration of the second case leads immediately to the construction of those canons, in which it is preferable to the demonstration given by Newton himself, whence they are not to be derived but indirectly and with difficulty. Of the eighth prop. two demonstrations are given, and canons for practice as in the former. Demonstrations are also given of all the corollaries to prop. 9, part of which are sometimes taken from Stewart's treatise, in which case the editor has always acknowledged the author, as he appears to have done in general with singular fidelity, wherever he has made use of the labours of other writers. To the eleventh prop. is added a Latin translation of Mr. Robins's admirable demonstration.

In the remaining tracts of this volume, we lose sight of the ingenious editor, who has given but very few notes on the *Geometria Analytica*, and none at all on the remaining treatises. It will recur, however, to every one, that his ample discussions on the same subjects in the *Excerpta*, &c. seem to have rendered more unnecessary. A few occasional remarks, however, we find; and it is to be observed, that this is the first authentic publication of the author's treatise on fluxions from his original Latin MSS. there having been before only two translations, one in 4to. by professor Colson, and the other in 8vo. by an anonymous author; both very erroneous in many places.

The *Methodus Differentialis* is now so generally explained in astronomical books, and is, indeed, so obvious to those who will take the trouble of computing, that no illustration of its principle seems necessary; perhaps, when the learned editor treats of its application to astronomy for interpolating observations, in the third book of the *Principia*, he may give a few illustrations to facilitate the practice.

The *Lineæ tertii Ordinis* have already so ample and excellent a comment by Stirling, as seems to have precluded any other. The editor has thought proper that they should stand alone in this edition; and, indeed to those who have well considered the previous tracts and the notes of the editor, they will need little explication.

It would be injurious to the editor to omit the mention of his supplementary treatises *De Geometria Fluxionum* and *Logistica Infinitorum*; both of which do him great honour as a geometer and a computist. The first may be considered as an explication of the lemma, in the second book of the *Principia* and its corollaries, shewing in eight theorems and their corollaries, the demonstration of the first principles of the fluxionary method. The demonstrations of this piece are strictly geometrical, being founded on the Newtonian method of prime and ultimate ratios, which is a pure geometrical method.

The other treatise contains some general *formulae*, very necessary as an appendix to this volume, to expedite arithmetical operations in infinite series. Among others, De Moivre's infinito-nominal theorem, as it is called, is there reduced into a form more practically commodious than either his own or Dr. Cheyne's.

Upon the whole, the editor of this great work has acquitted himself in a manner highly deserving the esteem of the learned world; having given ample proof of his genius and application, in illustrating his author where necessary, and, in rescinding unnecessary explications. In the correctness and
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elegance of this volume he has given a specimen of an edition which the fame of Newton seemed to demand. Those who are judges of geometry, will perceive how strictly in all his demonstrations, except where mere computation was concerned, he has adhered to the purity of geometrical reasoning, from which most of the modern writers have departed in discussing these subjects.

Travels through Spain, in the Years 1775 and 1776, in which several Monuments of Roman and Moorish Architecture are illustrated by accurate Drawings taken on the Spot. By Henry Swinburne, Esq. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Elmly. [Concluded from p. 52.]

Departing from Carthagena, Mr. Swinburne and his company travelled two long days over a plain, the first part of which is cultivated, but the last two-thirds are said to be as complete a desert as any in the sands of Africa. Not a bush, tree, nor house, to be seen in all the vast expanse of level ground. The want of water, we are told, is the cause of this desolation; for the soil seems very fit for tillage. A day's journey hence, the travellers passed the clay-hills which encompass the episcopal see of Guadia. These are represented as the most extraordinary in nature; they are very high, and washed into broken masses, resembling spires, towers, and mishapen rocks. In them are dug whole villages, the windows of which appear like pigeon, or rather marten-holes. The passage through is remarkably singular, winding for half a mile between two huge rugged walls of earth, without the least mixture of rock or gravel.

After this dreary journey, and passing over some heath and forest land, the travellers were gratified with the view of the beautiful plain and city of Granada. This city stands on two hills, at the foot of the Sierra Nevada, near the junction of two small rivers. One of these, the Dauro, sometimes washes down gold; and the other, the Xenil, virgin silver; but Mr. Swinburne could not procure any specimen of either, on account of the severe prohibition issued by government against all who search after mines or minerals. The ancient palace of the Alhambra, and the Torre Virmeja, crowns the double summit of the hill between the rivers; the other hill north of the Dauro, is covered with the Albaycin of Alcaçaba. This valuable province appears to have greatly declined since the expulsion of the Moors from Spain.

* Before the conquest, says our author, it was one of the most compact, well-peopled, opulent kingdoms in the world. Its agri-

agriculture was brought to great perfection, its revenues and circulation were immense; the public works carried on with great magnificence, and its population not to be credited by any person that sees it in its present condition. Nothing but the numerous ruins scattered over its hills can induce one to believe, that those bleak, barren wastes, which make up more than two-thirds of the province, were formerly covered with luxuriant plantations of fruit-trees, abundant harvests, or noble forests. Each Moor had his allotment of as much ground as sufficed for his habitation, the maintenance of his family, and the provender of his horse, which every man was obliged to keep. These small freeholds formed the general appearance of the country, before the incessant inroads and ravages of the Christians had driven the Moors to cities, mountains of difficult access, or quite away to the coast of Barbary. The single city of Granada contained eighty thousand families, and frequently sent out armies of thirty thousand foot, and ten thousand horse. An Arabian author says, that the kings had a constant stock of an hundred thousand horses for their own use, and for mounting their cavalry in time of war, and more than once had mustered two hundred thousand soldiers in actual pay, for the purpose of making war upon the Castilians.

‘A great deal of silk was produced in the plain, and the hills behind the city afforded corn enough for its consumption. The rich mines of the mountains were opened, and, though not wrought with any thing like the skill of modern miners, yielded such a quantity of gold and silver, that both metals were more common in Granada than any country in Europe.’

The sea-coast of Granada, from Marbilla to Motril, afforded formerly large quantities of sugar, which was an article of commerce to Madrid, till within these thirty years. What is now produced is consumed in the neighbourhood in sweetmeats. From heavy duties on this branch of trade, it is now reduced very low; there being only three mills, and these in a declining state. At Motril, and at Toros, near Velez, we are told that sugar canes have been produced nine foot high, of a proportionable thickness.

The most celebrated object in the neighbourhood is the palace of the Alhambra, the ancient residence of the Mahometan monarchs of Granada. It derives its name from the red materials of which it was originally built. The pleasantness of the situation, and the salubrity of the air, induced the emperor Charles V. to begin a magnificent edifice on the ruins of the offices of the ancient palace, with the intention, it is supposed, of rendering it his principal residence. It stands between the rivers, on a very high hill, that projects into the plain, and overlooks all the city. Its appearance is that of an old town, exhibiting a long range of high walls furnished with battle-

battlements, interrupted at regular distances by large lofty square towers. The whole is built with round irregular pebbles, mixed with cement and gravel, and covered in some parts with plaister. This edifice is a perfect square of two hundred Spanish feet: it has two orders of pilasters, Doric and Ionic, upon a rustic base. The height, from the top of the upper entablature, is sixty-two foot. Three of the fronts are free from the other buildings; but the fourth, which looks to the north, is joined to the ancient palace of the Moorish kings. This magnificent building was never finished; but our author observes, that, from the plentiful supplies of water, which was brought to refresh it in the hot months of summer; from the free circulation of air, by the judicious disposition of doors and windows; and from the shady gardens of aromatic trees, every thing concurred to render the Alhambra the most voluptuous of all retirements. Such is the purity of the air, Mr. Swinburne informs us, that fruit and butcher's meat remain in the Alhambra an unusual length of time without being tainted.

From Granada, Mr. Swinburne proceeds to Malaga, which is rendered insufferably hot by its situation, for eight months in the year. The streets of this city are narrow, but some squares are of a good size. The most remarkable building is the cathedral, which is a stupendous pile. Two gentlemen, who had measured both churches, assured our author, that this building was as large as St. Paul's at London; but he is not convinced of the exactness of their measurement. The church of Malaga, he admits, may be as wide, but he cannot think it is near so long as the other. This edifice was begun by Philip II. while married to Mary, queen of England; and their united arms are still to be seen over the door.

We are informed there are about fourteen foreign houses settled in trade at Malaga. They export five thousand butts of wine a year, of which the average price is from ten to thirty pounds a butt. Till within the last fifteen years, the quantity exported was ten thousand butts; but, as no difference is made in England, in the duties, between old and new wine, the exporter became careless in the quality of wine sent, and the demand for it fell one half.

The grapes, of which the best raisins are made, (a capital branch of commerce here) are half cut off the stem, and left four days to dry and candy in the sun. The raisins dried upon the coast of Valencia, we are told, are of an inferior quality, being dipped in a lye of lees of wine and ashes.

Between Malaga and Gibraltar are twelve sugar-mills, where they have wrought time out of mind. The tradition is,

is, that the sugar-cane was first brought into Spain by the Arabs.

Our author observes, that the Spanish peasantry seems very poor, and frugal in their diet: bread steeped in oil, and occasionally seasoned with vinegar, is the common food of the country-people from Barcelona to Malaga.

Much has been said of the number of banditti in Spain, and the danger of passing from one province to another. In Catalonia and Valencia, where a regular police is established for apprehending thieves and preventing robberies, travellers go without arms. Farther south, Mr. Swinburne observes, that no horseman, muletteer, or ass-driver, is without his gun, or sabre, slung at the pommel of his saddle; but whether this implies any real danger, or only an ancient custom, our author does not determine. Whatever risks a single passenger may be supposed to run in a cross-road, and unfrequented waste, Mr. Swinburne was confident that a caravan like theirs needed be under no apprehensions of attack. They, therefore, walked unarmed along the roads, about the villages, and in the bye-paths, without the least fear, or, as our author acknowledges, any reason to fear.

In the province of Andalusia, Mr. Swinburne informs us, farm-houses are scattered over the country, as with us in England. The work of the harvest is performed by the Galliegos, that travel from Galicia to assist those provinces, where the inhabitants are too few or too lazy to execute the task themselves. The excessive badness of the highway obliged the travellers to drive through the lands, which, in their year of fallow, runs up into the thickest and strongest crops of French honeysuckle Mr. Swinburne ever beheld. Were this province properly peopled, he tells us, there would be no bounds to its produce; the soil being so eminently rich, that through all the luxuriance of vegetation the wheels of the carriages penetrated many inches into the loam. But to balance these advantages, the crops of Andalusia are very precarious; for if a sudden glare of sun-shine succeeds too rapidly to a morning fog, the whole country is blighted.

Xeres, in this province, is a large town, with winding streets, and horrible channels of black stagnating water, which, when the crust upon it is broke, emits an almost suffocating stench. The hills about the town, and the views towards Cadiz, are pleasing. Mr. Swinburne observes, that some poets have placed the Elysian fields in this neighbourhood, and pretend that the Guadalete was Lethe, or the River of Oblivion. By paying so unmerited a compliment to this place, however, he supposes they had never seen it, or it has undergone strange alter-

alterations since their time; for this paradise is now an immense marshy flat, through which a narrow river, much resembling those in the Lincolnshire fens, winds its course to the sea; not a stick of wood, we are told, is to be seen near it.

In Cadiz, we are informed, the swarms of rats that infest the streets in the night are innumerable. The houses are lofty, with each a vestibule, which being left open till night, serve passengers to retire to. This custom, so prevalent throughout Spain, renders these places extremely offensive. The inhabitants of this city are computed at one hundred and forty thousand, of which number twelve thousand are French, and at least as many Italians.

Mr. Swinburne gives a particular account of Seville, the capital of Andalusia, formerly a place of great note, but now chiefly remarkable for the snuff manufactory. He tells us, that for the more convenient carrying on this lucrative branch of commerce, Ferdinand VI. erected a most magnificent roomy palace, in a grand, but rather heavy, style of architecture. It was finished in 1756; a thousand men are employed constantly, at the rate of six or four reals a day, for about nine hours work. A hundred and eighty mules work twenty-eight mills, or machines, for grinding and mixing the tobacco with the red earth of Almazarron. The excessive adulteration with this earth, practised of late years by the directors, has occasioned a vast diminution in the exportation of this commodity; and it is said, that unless they alter their method, the trade will soon be confined to Spain and its dominions. The northern markets have long refused to take any off their hands. The leaves of the tobacco are imported from Cuba and the Brazils. The best snuff is called grance, which is sold at the rate of thirty-two reals a pound. The travellers visited every part of the house. In one room they found four hundred and sixty men sitting at work, making cigarros (little rolls of tobacco, which the Spaniards smoke without a pipe) and tying them up in bunches. Mr. Swinburne was informed, that the neat profits of last year, upon all the snuff and tobacco sold at the office, amounted to more than six millions of dollars.

Our author observes that the police of Seville is very severe, but, perhaps, not uniformly and impartially so. His servant was a day and a night in prison, only for carrying his master's pistols through the streets to the gunsmith's. Mr. Swinburne adds, that there was as much writing about the releasement as would do for a moderate suit in chancery; but it seemed to be cheap enough, the expences of the whole process not exceeding a guinea.

Mr.

Mr. Swinburne describes the city of Toledo as extremely singular in point of situation. The Tagus, after winding at large through a fine plain, is at last wedged in between two high ramparts of steep rocks. The passage is very narrow, and before the river gets out again into a broad bed and open ground, it almost returns to the place where it entered the defile. On this rocky peninsula stands the city, exceedingly ill built, poor, and ugly. The streets are so steep, that no stranger in his senses would venture up or down them in a carriage.

The fee of Toledo is said to be worth four hundred thousand ducats a year; but there are large deductions to be made. Besides the proportion the infant don Lewis receives, and pensions to different persons, it pays annually fifteen thousand ducats to the monks of the Escorial, though Philip II. granted them no less than thirty villages in their neighbourhood. The Spanish court finds many ways of lessening the revenues of the church, by pensions, donations to hospitals, charitable foundations, and premiums to the societies of agriculture. We are informed there is not a bishopric in the kingdom but has somebody quartered upon it; and this seems to be likewise the case with the second-rate benefices. Out of the rich canonries and prebends are taken the pensions of the new order of knights of Carlos tercero.

Our author observes, that one of the greatest vexations a curious person experiences in travelling through Spain, is the scarcity of tolerable *Ciceroni*. Those you meet with are generally cobblers, who throw a brown cloak over their ragged apparel, and conduct you to a church or two, where they cannot give you the least satisfactory information concerning its antiquities or curiosities. This our author found to be literally the case at Toledo.

Aranjuez, where stands a royal palace, twenty miles from Madrid, is represented as a very beautiful retirement, abounding with avenues of aged elms, flowering shrubs, green banks, fountains and shady groves, with a fine meandering river, all which render it one of the most agreeable residences belonging to a sovereign prince. For the gratification of our readers, we shall lay before them the author's account of his catholic majesty; observing only, that the probity ascribed to the king of Spain seems not to be very consistent with the principles on which he has entered into the present war with Great Britain.

‘I beg you will consider how hard it is to discern the true character of the great, as your intelligence can only flow to you through the suspicious channel of many jarring passions and interests

terests. It is impossible for a stranger to seize a good likeness in so short a time, and to transmit to others a faithful representation, of a prince, that does not admit him to a familiar intercourse. I don't know but sovereigns are the most difficult characters to define in a whole nation; for all princes appear pretty nearly alike; their mode of life is uniform; by seeing none but inferiors about them, they acquire a great indifference in their manner, and seldom betray in their countenance any of those strong emotions that mark the various feelings of men obliged to bustle through the world; their passions lack the relish which arises from delays and difficulties; what the French call *ennui*, wearisomness, is, methinks, the grand malady of princes, and therefore amusement is their main pursuit in life. In the princes of the house of Bourbon, the passion of fowling predominates; yet in the Spanish royal family, there are some who toil at the gun with more reluctance than the farmer's boy does at the plough; have a taste for arts and sciences, and wish for nothing more than to be freed from the obligation of following the diversion.

The ceremony of presentation is performed as the king rises from table. Charles III. is a much better looking man than most of his pictures make him; he has a good-natured laughing eye; the lower part of his face, by being exposed to all weather, is become of a deep copper colour; what his hat covers, is fair, as he naturally has a good skin; in stature he is rather short, thickly built about the legs and thighs, and narrow in the shoulders. His dress seldom varies from a large hat, a plain grey Segovia frock, a buff waistcoat, a small dagger, black breeches, and worsted stockings; his pockets are always stuffed with knives, gloves, and shooting tackle. On gala days, a fine suit is hung upon his shoulders, but as he has an eye to his afternoon sport, and is a great economist of his time, the black breeches are worn to all coats. I believe there are but three days in the whole year that he spends without going out a shooting, and those are noted with the blackest mark in the calendar; were they to occur often, his health would be in danger, and an accident that was to confine him to the house, would infallibly bring on a fit of illness. No storm, heat, cold, or wet, can keep him at home; and when he hears of a wolf being seen, distance is counted for nothing; he would drive over half the kingdom rather than miss an opportunity of firing upon that favourite game. Besides a most numerous retinue of persons belonging to the hunting establishment, several times a year all the idle fellows in and about Madrid, are hired to beat the country, and drive the wild boars, deer, and hares, into a ring, where they pass before the royal family. A very large annual sum is distributed among the proprietors of land about the capital, and near the country palaces, by way of indemnification for the damage done to the corn. I was assured that it costs seventy thousand pounds sterling for the environs of Madrid, and

thirty thousand for those of St. Ildefonso. In order to be entitled to this reimbursement, the farmers scatter just as much seed-corn over their grounds, as will grow up into something like a crop; but they do not always give themselves the trouble of getting in the scanty harvest, being sufficiently paid for their labour by the royal bounty.

Being naturally of an even phlegmatic temper, the king is sure to see events on their favorable side only; and whenever he has determined in his own mind that a measure is proper to be pursued, he is an utter enemy to alteration. As far as I can judge, by comparing the different accounts I have had, he is a man of the strictest probity, incapable of adopting any scheme, unless he is perfectly satisfied in his conscience that it is just and honourable; of such immoveable features, that the most fortunate or the most disastrous occurrences are alike unable to create the smallest variation in them: rigid in his morals, and strenuously attached to his religion; but he does not suffer his devotion to lay him open to the enterprizes of the court of Rome, or the encroachments of his own clergy; on the contrary, they have frequently met with rougher usage at his hands than they might have expected from a free-thinker. The regularity of his own life renders him very strict about the conduct of his children, whom he obliges to be out fishing or shooting as long as he is absent on the same business; this he does to prevent their having time or opportunity to harbour bad thoughts; and truly I believe he goes out so constantly himself, in order to keep down the vigour of his own constitution. He seldom addresses himself to any young men of his court; but delights in conversing and joking with elderly persons, and such as are of his own age, especially monks and friars. He is very partial to Naples, and always speaks of that country with great feeling.

Mr. Swinburne remarks, there is hardly any capital in Europe that has so little shew as Madrid. Having never been the see of a bishop it has of course no cathedral, nor indeed any church that deserves notice. Our author pronounces the outward architecture of them all to be barbarous, and the ornaments of the inside equal to those of the rudest ages. Most of them, he observes, were erected, or retouched, during the term of years that elapsed between the middle of the seventeenth century, and the year 1759, a period in the history of Spain, when all arts and sciences were fallen to the lowest ebb; the effect of the degeneracy of manners, the want of public spirit, and the disorder and weakness of a decaying monarchy. No mad architect, says Mr. Swinburne, ever dreamt of a distortion of members so capricious, of a twist of pillars, cornices, or pediments, so wild and fantastic, but a sample of it may be produced in some of the churches of Madrid.

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We shall conclude this article with the author's character of the Spaniards, which appears to be drawn with no less candour than with judicious and attentive observation.

' The Catalans appear to be the most active stirring set of men, the best calculated for business, travelling, and manufactories. The Valencians a more fallen, sedate race, better adapted to the occupations of husbandmen, less eager to change place, and of a much more timid, suspicious cast of mind than the former. The Andalusians seem to me the great talkers androdomontadoes of Spain. The Castilians have a manly frankness, and less appearance of cunning and deceit. The new Castilians are perhaps the least industrious of the whole nation; the old Castilians are laborious, and retain more of antient simplicity of manners; both are of a firm determined spirit. I take the Aragonese to be a mixture of the Castilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biscayners are acute and diligent, fiery, and impatient of controul: more resembling a colony of republicans, than a province of an absolute monarchy. The Galicians are a plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in search of an hardly earned subsistence.

' The listless indolence equally dear to the uncivilized savage, and to the degenerate slave of despotism, is no where more indulged than in Spain; thousands of men in all parts of the realm are seen to pass their whole day wrapped up in a cloak, standing in rows against a wall, or dosing under a tree. In total want of every excitement to action, the springs of their intellectual faculties forget to play; their views grow confined within the wretched sphere of mere existence, and they scarce seem to hope or foresee any thing better than their present state of vegetation; they feel little or no concern for the welfare or glory of a country, where the surface of the earth is engrossed by a few over-grown families, who seldom bestow a thought on the condition of their vassals. The *poor* Spaniard does not work, unless urged by irresistible want, because he perceives no advantage accrue from industry. As his food and raiment are purchased at a small expence, he spends no more time in labour, than is absolutely necessary for procuring the scanty provision his abstemiousness requires. I have heard a peasant refuse to run an errand, because he had that morning earned as much already as would last him the day, without putting himself to any further trouble.

' Yet I am convinced that this laziness is not essentially inherent in the Spanish composition; for it is impossible without feeling them, to conceive with what eagerness they pursue any favourite scheme, with what violence their passions work upon them, and what vigour and exertions of powers they display when awakened by a bull-feast, or the more constant agitation of gaming, a vice to which they are superlatively addicted. Were it again possible, by an intelligent, spirited administration,

tion, to set before their eyes, in a clear and forcible manner, proper incitements to activity and industry, the Spaniards might yet be roused from their lethargy, and led to riches and reputation; but I confess the task is so difficult, that I look upon it rather as an Utopian idea, than as a revolution likely ever to take place.

• Their soldiers are brave, and patient of hardships; wherever their officers lead them, they will follow without flinching, though it be up to the mouth of a battery of cannon; but unless the example be given them by their commander, not a step will they advance.

• Most of the Spaniards are hardy; and when once engaged, go through difficulties without murmuring, bear the inclemencies of the seasons with firmness, and support fatigue with amazing perseverance. They sleep every night in their cloaks on the ground; are sparing in diet, perhaps more from a sense of habitual indigence, than from any aversion to gluttony; whenever they can riot in the plenty of another man's table, they will gormandise to excess, and not content with eating their fill, will carry off whatever they can stuff into their pockets. I have more than once been a witness to the pillage of a supper, by the numerous beaux and admirers which the ladies lead after them in triumph, wherever they are invited. They are fond of spices, and scarce eat any thing without saffron, pimento, or garlic; they delight in wine that tastes strong of the pitched skin, and of oil that has a rank smell and taste; indeed, the same oil feeds their lamp, swims in their pottage, and dresses their salad: in inns the lighted lamp is frequently handed down to the table, that each man may take the quantity he chooses. Much tobacco is used by them in smoking and chewing. All these hot drying kinds of food, co-operating with the parching qualities of the atmosphere, are assigned as causes of the spare make of the common people in Spain, where the inn-keepers are almost the only well-fed, portly figures to be met with.

• The Spanish is by no means naturally a serious, melancholy nation: misery and discontent have cast a gloom over them, increased, no doubt, by the long habit of distrust and terror inspired by the inquisition; yet every village still resounds with the music of voices and guitars; and their fairs and Sunday wakes are remarkably noisy and riotous. They talk louder, and argue with more vehemence than even the French or Italians, and gesticulate with equal, if not superior eagerness. In Catalonia, the young men are expert at ball; and every village has its pelota or ground for playing at fives; but in the south of Spain, I never perceived that the inhabitants used any particular exercise. I am told, that in the island of Majorca they still wield the sling, for which their ancestors, the Baleares, were so much renowned.

• Like most people of southern climates, they are dirty in their persons, and over-run with vermin.

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* The very mention of horns is an insult, and the sight of them makes their blood boil. As their constitution may be said to be made up of the most combustible ingredients, and prone to love in a degree that natives of more northern latitudes can have no idea of, the custom of embracing persons of the other sex, which is used on many occasions by foreigners, sets the Spaniards all on fire. They would as soon allow a man to pass the night in bed with their wives or daughters, as suffer him to give them a kiss; and indeed, I believe the ladies themselves would look upon that favour as a certain prelude to others of greater consequence. Next to accusing a Spaniard of wearing horns, nothing can give him such offence, as to suspect him of having an issue.

* I was surprized to find them so much more lukewarm in their devotion than I expected; but I will not take upon me to assert, though I have great reason to believe it, that there is in Spain as little true moral religion as in any country I ever travelled through, although none abounds more with provincial protectors, local Madonnas, and altars celebrated for particular cures and indulgences: religion is a topic not to be touched, much less handled with any degree of curiosity, in the dominions of so tremendous a tribunal as the inquisition. From what little I saw, I am apt to suspect, that the people here trouble themselves with very few serious thoughts on the subject; and that, provided they can bring themselves to believe that their favourite saint looks upon them with an eye of affection, they take it for granted, that, under his benign influence, they are freed from all apprehensions of damnation in a future state; and, indeed, from any great concern about the moral duties of this life. The burning zeal, which distinguished their ancestors above the rest of the Catholic world, appears to have lost much of its activity, and really seems nearly extinguished. It is hard to ascribe bounds to the changes a crafty, steady, and popular monarch might make in ecclesiastical matters. The unconcern betrayed by the whole nation at the fall of the Jesuits, is a strong proof of their present indifference. Those fathers, the most powerful body politic in the kingdom, the rulers of the palace, and the despots of the cottage, the directors of the conscience, and the disposers of the fortune of every rank of men, were all seized in one night, by detachments of soldiers, hurried like malefactors to the sea-ports, and banished for ever from the realm, without the least resistance to the royal mandate being made, or even threatened. Their very memory seems to be annihilated with their power.

* We found the common people inoffensive, if not civil; and having never had an opportunity of being witnesses to any of their excesses, can say nothing of their violent love, jealousy, or revenge, which are points most writers on Spain have expatiated upon with great pleasure. I believe in this line, as well as in many others, their bad as well as their good qualities have been magnified many degrees above the truth.

These travels contain the fullest and most distinct account of Spain that has hitherto been published. The face of the country, and the situation of the towns, are described in a lively manner; as are also the various objects that attract the attention of a curious stranger. In delineating the antiquities, especially the Moorish, Mr. Swinburne is copious and accurate; and these are generally illustrated with engravings. The judicious observations which occur in the work, place in the clearest light the present state of the country, while a view of its former condition is exhibited in a history of the several provinces and great cities.

Experiments and Observations relating to various Branches of Natural Philosophy; with a Continuation of the Observations on Air. By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F. R. S. 8vo. 6 s. in Boards. Johnson.

AMIDST the numerous pursuits of this indefatigable writer, we are glad to find he has not yet relinquished those respecting natural philosophy, but that he has been continuing to prosecute experiments on this subject, during the intervals of relaxation from researches of a different kind; and that he has favoured the public with the first volume of a new work, which, we doubt not, will, like others of his former productions, contribute to enlarge the bounds of science.

After an Introduction, where the author gives an account of the improvements he has made in his apparatus, and the new processes he has used, he enters on the detail of his observations, the first of which relates to the nitrous acid, particularly the colour of it. In his third volume of Observations on Air, he related several experiments to ascertain the strength of the nitrous acid, as depending upon the circumstances in which it was made, and others respecting its colour, especially when this acid was made by impregnating distilled water with the nitrous vapour; in which case it first became blue, then green, and lastly yellow. He also observed, that at the beginning of the common process for making nitrous acid, it was frequently a little orange-coloured, then a pale yellow, and afterwards again orange-coloured; but that a little phlogistic matter in the materials would always make the whole produce of a deep orange-colour. Since that time, Dr. Priestley has made many more observations relating to the colour of the nitrous acid, and he thinks he has decisively proved, that neither this acid, nor the muriatic, have naturally any more colour than the vitriolic acid, or than water

water itself; being able to give them colour, change it, or wholly take it away at pleasure. The facts he relates on this subject, he is of opinion, prove that it is either phlogiston, or mere heat, that gives colour to the nitrous acid; that this colour may also be entirely expelled by heat; but continuance of heat will give it more colour, and deepen it at pleasure, so that more heat, in glass vessels hermetically sealed, seems to have the same effect with phlogiston. He thinks it, however, more probable, that heat affects the nitrous, and in such a manner, as to develope, as it were, the phlogiston it before contained, and put it into a new state, rendering that part of the acid to which it is attached not only more volatile, but disposed to reflect the rays of light in a particular manner; though before this action of the heat, the phlogiston was latent, or at least, did not discover itself by those particular effects.

The second section treats of the nitrous acid vapour. In the third volume of *Observations on Air*, Dr. Priestley observed the remarkable effects of impregnating oil of vitriol with nitrous acid vapour. Having impregnated a larger quantity of the oil of vitriol than he used in those experiments, he left some of it in a large phial, with a ground stopper, among other phials containing things for which he had no immediate use. But he tells us, that though *his* process was over, that of nature was not. Happening to look at it on the 19th of March following, about six months after the impregnation, he was surprised to find that almost the whole was crystallized, a very small part only of the contents of the phial remaining liquid. The crystals exactly resembled ice, and exhibited all the appearances which our author had before observed to attend the simple impregnation of the vitriolic acid with nitrous vapour, but in a much more elegant manner. On dropping a piece of this ice into pure water, it became green, and effervesced with great violence. A beautiful and striking phenomenon immediately ensued; all the water in which the ice was dissolved began instantly to sparkle, with the spontaneous and copious production of air. With the help of a little heat, the production of air was so great, that the quantity was more than a hundred times the bulk of the ice that had been dissolved. It was the purest nitrous air.

The application of heat made this ice emit a dense red fume; but holding a quantity of it in a glass vessel over a candle, it presently melted, emitting bubbles. Letting it stand to cool, it crystallized very suddenly, when it was about blood warm. In this second congelation, it was much more opaque and dense than it had been in the former. When this ice was dissolving with heat, the fume it emitted was not red, but white, and

exceedingly dense, like oil of vitriol in vapour. When it had been kept dissolved in a boiling heat some time, it did not afterwards crystallize, but continued fluid and transparent; being then, probably, mere oil of vitriol. Our author relates distinctly what he observed of this phenomenon, but informs us that he has not yet been able to investigate all the circumstances necessary to this remarkable crystallization; having originally found it when he had no expectation of any such thing, and having often since failed to find it when he has expected it the most.

Section III. displays some phenomena attending the solution of metals in nitrous acid. Dr. Priestley is persuaded, that an attention to the nature of nitrous air will contribute greatly to the investigation of the constitution of the several metals, and the explanation of many phenomena attending their decomposition, and consequently their composition.

In treating of this subject, the author thus proceeds:

• Having had frequent occasion to dissolve mercury in strong spirit of nitre, in order to procure from it nitrous and dephlogisticated air, and to note the quantity of the metal revived afterwards, I could not help being very particularly struck with some phenomena in the solution, which are as follows.

• The moment that strong spirit of nitre is poured upon quicksilver, the solution is instantly very rapid. But though it is known that one method of procuring nitrous air is by the solution of this metal in the nitrous acid, not a single bubble of any kind of air is seen to be formed; at least none rises through the acid. Presently, however, one may perceive, that very large bubbles of air are formed, but they instantly disappear, and nothing remains of them but the smallest specks imaginable, to rise to the top of the acid. By degrees, the acid near the mercury becomes of a deep orange colour, and then through this part of the acid the bubbles of air ascend freely; but the moment they come to the superincumbent pale coloured acid, they collapse into those small and barely perceivable points, yielding no air that can be collected in any sensible quantity. And it is not till the whole quantity of the acid is changed from a pale to an orange colour, that any nitrous air can be collected. Then, however, the bubbles rise freely to the top of the acid, and, mixing with the incumbent common air exhibit an orange colour by their decomposition on mixing with it. Then, also, a strong smell of spirit of nitre is perceived, as it always happens when nitrous air is let loose to mix with the air of the room in which we are breathing. Whereas, immediately before, no smell was perceived, and the common air incumbent on the mixture was quite colourless.

• Had these singular phenomena been noticed by any chemist before the discovery of nitrous air, I cannot imagine what hypothesis

pothesis he would have formed for the explanation of them. Whatever it had been, it must have been very wide of the truth; whereas the whole process admits of the easiest explanation imaginable by the help of my observations on the decomposition of nitrous air by the nitrous acid, vol. iii. p. 121.

* Nitrous air is actually formed the moment that the solution begins, but it is instantly decomposed by the strong spirit of nitre in contact with it. By the addition of the phlogiston contained in the nitrous air, the pale spirit of nitre assumes an orange colour, and it is then much less able to decompose the nitrous air; which, therefore, rises in bubbles through it, and is not decomposed till it comes to the region of the pale acid lying upon it. But when the whole body of the acid is saturated with phlogiston, then, and not before, the bubbles of nitrous air, pass freely through it, and may be collected.

* On this account, it is not easy to ascertain the exact quantity of nitrous air yielded by the solution of mercury, and, for the same reason, of other metals too, in strong spirit of nitre; because allowance must be made for the quantity that will be imbibed by the acid itself, which must be saturated before any can be collected: whereas, when the acid is much diluted with water, it is not so capable of decomposing this air, and therefore, in general, it may be collected from the moment that the solution begins.

* It is very remarkable, that when copper is dissolved in pale spirit of nitre, even diluted with much water, though the solution is evidently the most rapid at the first, the produce of air is very trifling for a considerable time, and the quantity collected increases very gradually; whereas when the orange coloured acid is employed, in the same diluted state, the nitrous air is collected immediately, and the production is the most copious at the first.

* When I dissolved a quantity of copper in strong spirit of nitre half diluted with water, no air whatever was produced, though the metal was completely dissolved.

* When, in the solution of mercury, I used the green spirit of nitre, instead of the pale coloured and strongest acid, the phenomena were not materially different from those described above. The lower part of the acid next to the mercury assumed a deeper green, but it never became orange coloured.

Section IV. is employed on the changes to which nitrous air is subject. Both nitrous and inflammable air, as our author observes, contain phlogiston; but their properties being remarkably different, their constitution must be so likewise; the phlogiston in each being combined in a very different manner. In some cases, it is observed, that nitrous air parts with its phlogiston more readily than inflammable air; but in other respects, inflammable air is more easily decomposed. The phlogiston of nitrous air immediately quits it on the contact of com-

common air, where it is even quite cold; while, on the contrary, the phlogiston of inflammable air will not leave it to join the common air, except when it is very hot. Dr. Priestley, however, has evinced by experiment, that inflammable air parts with its phlogiston to the glass of lead in the composition of flint glass, in circumstances in which nitrous air undergoes no change. In the preface to his third volume of *Observations on Air*, he mentioned, in general, the quick absorption of nitrous air by a solution of green vitriol, but he now gives a more particular account of the observation.

* Having, says he, dissolved a quantity of green vitriol, and put it into a phial, with its mouth inverted in a basin of the same, and having admitted a quantity of nitrous air to it, I began to agitate the solution, in the same manner as in the process for impregnating water with fixed air; when I observed that the nitrous air, in these circumstances, was absorbed much more readily than fixed air is by water. I even made a quantity of this solution absorb more than ten times its bulk of nitrous air, without any sensible approach to saturation. The solution became black by this process; but when a small part of it was viewed by the light of a candle, placed beyond it, it looked red. The taste of the solution was acid, owing, no doubt, to the mixture of nitrous acid, which it had acquired, in consequence of the decomposition of the nitrous air.

* When this impregnated solution was exposed to the open air, large green crystals were formed at the bottom of the vessel, and all the black colour intirely disappeared. But when these crystals were formed at the bottom of a very tall vessel, they were much blacker, and did not even become green on being exposed afterwards to the open air, any more than those which I exposed to nitrous air itself on quicksilver.

* The changes of colour, and all the phenomena of the crystals, were evidently owing to the spirit of nitre contained in the nitrous air, and set at liberty in its decomposition. For a few drops of the acid itself produced the same effects, in all respects, on this solution.

* Conceiving that the principal of these phenomena must have arisen from the affinity between nitrous acid and iron, I agitated nitrous air in a natural chalybeate water, when it presently became of a brownish colour, which seemed to be a confirmation of my supposition.

* I also made another experiment in which the nitrous acid might show its affinity to iron in a manner somewhat similar to this. I first saturated a quantity of water with fixed air, then with iron, and afterwards impregnated it with nitrous air. The result of this experiment was, that the solution assumed a colour between green and yellow; but it did not absorb much more nitrous air than water unimpregnated with fixed air, or with iron, would have done.

* The

‘ The nitrous air which I had hitherto made use of in these experiments was made from copper, but when I used that which was made from iron, which is an ingredient in green vitriol, the effect was not at all different. The solution of the vitriol absorbed nitrous air with the same rapidity as it did that which was made from copper, and the subsequent phenomena were also, in all respects, the same.

‘ I then agitated nitrous air in solutions of blue and white vitriol, the former of which is known to be composed of copper, and the latter of zinc. The result was, that the colour of both these solutions became presently very dark, the former changing into a deep green, and the latter into a kind of brown. Not more than between one half and one third of the air (which was about one fourth of the contents of the phial I made use of) was absorbed in either of these cases, which is very far short of the effect of the solution of green vitriol on the same kind of air.

‘ It made no difference whether the nitrous air was procured from iron or from copper, in any of these experiments. For the solution of green vitriol, as I have observed, decomposed nitrous air made from iron just as readily as that which was made from copper; and, on the other hand, the solutions of blue and white vitriol were affected in the very same manner by nitrous air made from copper, as by that from iron.

‘ The solution of white vitriol deposited a white and flocculent matter, and then was transparent like water; but, being impregnated with nitrous air, it presently became of as dark a colour as when it had been impregnated before that deposit was made.

‘ Spirit of nitre dropped into the solution of blue or white vitriol made little or no change in their colour.

‘ All the solutions of vitriol which had their colour changed by the impregnation with nitrous air recovered it again by exposure to the common air. This was evidently effected by the escape of that phlogiston, which had contributed to the deepness of their colour. To ascertain this, I filled a phial about three fourths full of the solution of green vitriol, made black by the decomposition of nitrous air, and after about a week, examining the air which had been confined with it, I found it to be so much phlogisticated, that one measure of it and one of nitrous air occupied the space of 1.92 measures.

‘ Upon the whole, it seems that the greater effect of the solution of green vitriol in decomposing nitrous air must be owing to the stronger affinity between the spirit of nitre and iron, than between the same acid and copper or zinc.

‘ They seem to show, however, that there is little, if any martial earth in nitrous air, at least, that such earth existing in nitrous air is not combined with phlogiston, or in a metallic state, since this air is decomposed by the nitrous acid in it quitting the phlogiston with which it was already combined, in order to unite itself to the iron in the solution, at the same time that
the

the phlogiston which entered into the nitrous air contributes to blacken the solution. It will, perhaps, however be thought extraordinary, that the nitrous acid should have a stronger affinity with iron than the vitriolic, which, on this hypothesis, it must, in this particular case, have.

That the solution of green vitriol was not blackened by any peculiar affinity that it had with phlogiston, so as to decompose the nitrous air by seizing upon it seemed to be evident from this, that when I made an effervescence of iron filings and brimstone over the solution of green vitriol, there was no change of colour produced in it. The same was also the case when this effervescence was made over the solutions of blue and white vitriol, so that though the phlogiston set loose in this process was imbibed by the air, and phlogisticated it, these solutions were not at all affected by it.

Dr. Priestley remarks, that this effect of the solution of vitriol on nitrous air helps to explain a phenomenon, which he had often observed without understanding it. When the water in his trough had been impregnated with various metallic substances, that which was contiguous to the nitrous air, in jars standing in it, would be of a darker colour than the rest of the water. This, he observes, must have been in consequence of the affinity between the spirit of nitre in the nitrous air, and the metallic matter dissolved in the water, by means of some acid that happened to be mixed with it; while the dark colour of the water must have been acquired from the phlogiston of the nitrous air, partly decomposed by this means. At one time, when the water in his trough was particularly foul, and seemed disposed to make a deposit, he impregnated part of it with nitrous air, by which means the water immediately became of a darker colour than before.

To determine whether the phenomena attending the impregnation of the solution of green vitriol with nitrous air, depended in any measure upon the seeming astringency of that solution, and of chalybeate waters, our author impregnated with nitrous air a quantity of green tea, which is reputed astringent, but no sensible change of colour was produced in it.

In former publications Dr. Priestley has mentioned a variety of circumstances in which nitrous air is remarkably diminished. In several cases, it passes through a state in which a candle burns in it quite naturally, sometimes with a much enlarged flame, and at last becomes mere phlogisticated air. In all these processes he took it for granted, that the approximation to its final state of phlogisticated air was equable, so that as soon as it began to be diminished, it also began to lose its power of affecting common air. He found, however, that
with

with respect to several of the causes of diminution, and perhaps all of them, the air passes very suddenly from the state in which it is perfect nitrous air, to that of phlogisticated air; but that the period when this change takes place is variable; sometimes two thirds, and at other times fourteen fifteenths, of any quantity on which the experiment is made, will vanish before any sensible change can be observed in the remainder. Dr. Priestley has even sometimes been inclined to think that its power of affecting common air has been rather increased than diminished at the beginning of these processes. He is therefore of opinion, that, as soon as either the nitrous acid, or the phlogiston which enters the composition of nitrous air, is seized upon by any substance which has a stronger affinity with either of them than they have with each other, so much of the other principle as was combined with it is precipitated, so that the air which remains is not altered from what it was, at least for a considerable time. It appears, however, that the slower the process, the greater quantity of nitrous air will be preserved in the state of phlogisticated air, and the quicker the process, the farther it will proceed before this change takes place.

The fifth section recites an experiment on the impregnation of water with the vapour of nitrous acid, and is as follows:

‘ I have observed that the consequence of impregnating water with the vapour that escapes from spirit of nitre is making it sparkle, with the spontaneous production of nitrous air. This seems to prove that, unless there be earth in all water, there cannot be any earth necessarily contained in nitrous air.—But at the time of my former publication I had always produced this appearance by throwing into the water the red nitrous vapour from a violent effervescence of spirit of nitre and bismuth; and in this violent effervescence it was possible that some of the earth of the metal might be carried over, as some of the water evidently was. I was, therefore, now careful to avoid this objection, which I did by exposing a phial of pure nitrous acid to nitrous air over the purest distilled water. This I did by means of a tube with a ground stopper at each end. For by stopping and unstopping them alternately, I could easily manage so as to place the phial of spirit of nitre, supported by a thin glass tube, very near the top of the vessel, then fill it quite to the edge of the vessel with water, and after that displace the water by introducing nitrous air. As the nitrous air was absorbed I introduced more, by means of a bladder previously filled with it. The quantity of common air above the spirit of nitre was quite trifling in proportion to the bulk of the tube.

‘ In these circumstances I observed that when the nitrous acid became blue, and hardly before, the water next to it began to
emit

emit bubbles of air. To the formation of this air (which was doubtless nitrous air) nothing could contribute but the effluvia of the nitrous acid, and something that the water itself might furnish; and this water had been slowly and carefully distilled in glass vessels.

'The quantity of water used in this experiment was about four ounce measures, and the quantity of nitrous air absorbed was about fifteen or twenty ounce measures; the circumstances of the experiment being such that very little more could have been absorbed without changing the acid. I then carefully distilled the water, which had imbibed whatever had been precipitated from the decomposed nitrous air, and found a pretty large earthy sediment, covering a space at the bottom of a retort of about an inch and a quarter in diameter, besides having made a great number of white specks at a considerable distance from that central spot. This matter was generally white, but where it was thickest it was slightly orange-coloured. Spirit of salt dissolved the whole of this earthy matter, and became of a deep orange colour in consequence of it. This might seem to be earth which had been precipitated from the nitrous air, and perhaps some of it might have been thus produced; but when I afterwards evaporated to dryness the same quantity of the same distilled water, I found a larger earthy sediment than I had expected; and though I think not so much as that above described, yet enough to make me hesitate in drawing a general conclusion from it.'

In our next Review we shall continue the account of these curious Experiments and Observations.

Ode on the present State of English Poetry, occasioned by reading a Translation of select Parts of Shakspeare, Milton, Thomson, Warton, Simonides, Sophocles, and others. With Remarks. To which is added, A Translation of a Fragment of Simonides.
4to. 1s. 6d. Elmsley.

MANY of our modern poets, totally disregarding the beautiful simplicity of the most eminent classic writers, have given us, under the appellation of poetry, a series of forced and affected thoughts, turgid phrases, splendid images, and inconsistent metaphors, or, as Mason somewhere expresses it,

———The dazzling blaze of song,
That glares tremendous.

A hero, for example, in one and the same situation, is compared to a lion, a column, a whirlwind, a conflagration, a river, and a comet. At the same time, he is furious, immoveable,

able, rapid, ardent, driving whole squadrons before him, and shining in the heavens. A person in disgrace is not merely calumniated, but he is assaulted on all sides by a number of poetical spectres. Defamation throws his darts, the tide of censure runs against him, envy points her sting, malevolence mixes a bitter cup, and popular clamour raises a storm.

The ingenious author of the work before us endeavours to expose this false taste, and has therefore given us some specimens of that pompous and affected style, which is the very reverse of classical simplicity.

We shall pass over his Irregular Ode, or his burlesque imitation of modern poets, as the design of his publication will be better explained and exemplified by two poetical translations of the Fragment of Simonides; the first by Edward Burnaby Greene, Esq. the latter by this anonymous writer.

Dionysius Halicarnassæus, in his treatise Περὶ Συνθεσεως Ονομασιων, de Structurâ Orationis, produces this fragment as a proof, that poetry may subsist by sentiment alone; since a poem, in his opinion, may be exquisitely beautiful, and yet its diction and metre may be very few removes from prose*.

The fable is this: Acrisius, king of Argos, was told by the oracle, that he should be killed by his grandson. He therefore confined his daughter Danae in a brazen tower, or, if we believe some authors, a sort of subterraneous apartment†. But Jupiter changed himself into a shower of gold, and glided through the roof into her lap. Perseus was the fruit of this correspondence. As soon as Acrisius found, that his vigilance had been eluded, and that his daughter had brought forth a son, he ordered that she and the infant should be inclosed in a chest, and thrown into the sea.—Jupiter, however, took care that they should be safely conveyed to Seriphus, one of the Cyclades, where Dictys, the brother of Polydeutes, king of that island, took them under his protection. When Perseus was grown up, he went with his mother to Argos; and at the celebration of some funeral games, he accidentally killed his grandfather, by an unfortunate cast of a disc. Apollod. ii. 4. Pausan. ii. p. 58, 66. Hygin. Fab. 63.

The fragment of Simonides relates only to the confinement of Danae in the chest, and consists of her pathetic lamentation in that dreadful situation.

* In the earlier editions, this fragment of Simonides is printed as prose.

† Ἰσθμὸν ἡν θαλάμος χαλκῆος. Apollod. ii. 4. Pausan. ii. p. 66.

Τυμβήτης θαλάμος, a sepulchral chamber. Sophoc. Antig. v. 1063.

Ὅτε λαρνακι ἐν δαίδαλῳ ἀνεμὸς
 Βεβρηκὼν πνεύων, κινήσεια τε λιμένα,
 Δειματι ἤριπεν, οὐδ' ἀδιαλύσει
 Παρειαῖς ἀμφὶ τε Περσεὶ βαλε
 Φίλαν χεῖρα, εἶπεν τε ὦ τέκος,
 Οἷόν ἐχω πόνον; τυ δ' αἰεὶς, γαλαθῆναι τ'
 Ἥτορι κνώσσεις ἐν ἀτερπεί δωμάδι,
 Χαλκιογομφῶν δέ, νυκτὶ λαμπρῶν,
 Κυανῶν τε θνοφῶν. Τυ δ' αὖθις
 Ὑπερθε τεῶν κοίαν βαθεῖαν
 Παριονίος κυμάλος οὐκ ἀλεγείας,
 Οὐδ' ἀνεμὸν φθογγῶν, πορφύρεα
 Κεῖμενος ἐν χλαυδί, προσώπων καλόν.
 Εἰ δέ τοι δεινὸν τογε δεινὸν ἦν,
 Καὶ κεν ἐμῶν ῥημάτων λεπτόν
 Ὑπείχης οὐκ, κελομαι, εὐδὲ, βρεφός,
 Εὐδὲτω δέ ποιντος, εὐδὲτω ἀμετρον κακόν.
 Μαλακοῦλῳ δέ τις φανείη,
 Ζεὺ πατέρ, ἐκ σοῦ. Ὅ τι δὴ θάρσαλόν
 ἔπος, εὐχομαι τεκνοφί δικας μοί.

Λαρνακι. Apollodorus uses this word on the same occasion, *εἰς λαρνακα βαλὼν*. Some writers have called it a bark; but this suggests an improper idea. *Λαρναξ* is used by Homer, when he speaks of the golden *vase*, in which the bones of Hector were deposited; and when he mentions the silver *chest*, into which Vulcan collected his tools. *Il.* xxiv. 795. xviii. 413. But it is also used by other writers for vessels of much larger dimensions. Apollodorus tells us, that Deucalion made *λαρνακα*, an ark, in which he and Pyrrha passed nine days, during the flood, which covered the greatest part of Greece.

Alexander Polyhistor, *apud* Cyrill. *adv.* Jul. l. i. Nic. Damascenus, *ap.* Josephi *Antiq.* i. 4. Plut. *de Animal.* p. 968. Lucian *de Deâ Syriâ*, and many other writers, use the word *λαρναξ*, in speaking of Deucalion's vessel. Josephus, *Antiq.* i. 4. Theophilus Antiochenus, l. iii. &c. likewise call Noah's ark *λαρνακα*.

Some tell us, that Danae was shut up in this ark or chest. 'Inclusam in arca in mare dejecit,' says Hyginus. 'Intra arcam inclusam precipitavit in mare,' says Servius. 'Cum Dictys reclusisset,' says Natalis Comes.

Λιμένα. Probably the Sinus Argolicus. Servius, *Æn.* vii. 372. and some other writers assert, that the chest was driven into Italy. But the great distance of that country from Argos renders this account inconsistent with that probability, which ought to be preserved even in fictions.

Δειματι ἤριπεν. The common editions have *ἤριπεν*, and refer this expression to *λιμένα*. But *δειματι ἤριπεν*, 'the (that is; Danae) sunk

sunk down with horror,' is a better reading and interpretation. It may be observed, that as this piece is only a fragment, there can be no doubt, but that the name of Danae was mentioned in the preceding verses, which are now lost.

Τὸ δ' αὖτις, γαλαθηνῶ τ'. This is an arbitrary correction of Casaubon's. Upton, where this fragment is quoted by Dionysius, reads σὺ δ' αὖτις γαλαθηνῶ, which is full as well, if not better than Casaubon's emendation. Αὖτις, 'thou sleepest,' is totally unnecessary, as the word κνωσσεις immediately follows. Homer says, ὑπνον αὖτις, somnum carpis, Il. x. 159. Odys. x. 548. But it will, perhaps, be impossible to find this word used as a neuter verb, signifying *to sleep*.

Δωμάϊ χαλκιογομφῶ, in domo clavis ferreis compactâ. This expression can have no meaning, unless Danae was *shut up* in the chest; but, on this supposition, it will add greatly to the horror of her situation, by representing her as confined in a narrow cell, from which it was impossible to escape.

Νυκτιλαμπει. Sylburgius says, νυκτιλαμπεις δωμα is domus, cui nox sola illucet, idque tenebrosa. But this is hardly sense. The author of the present translation thinks, 'that Simonides meant to describe a tempestuous night, in which the only light was that of the moon, appearing by fits through the broken clouds.'—And Upton translates νυκτιλαμπει, sub incertâ lunâ. But if Danae was actually inclosed, the moon could have no effect. The sun could afford her only some faint imperfect glimmerings, between light and darkness, through the crevices on the upper part of the chest: and such a light could only resemble that of a dark night. If this is not the author's meaning, it is difficult to say, what it really is.

Λεπτον. Some copies have λεπτων, agreeing with ἑημαίων, and it is printed λεπτων by the translator. But we meet with no such expression as λεπτα ἑημαία, signifying tender and endearing expressions. In the next place, it is more consistent with the situation of Danae to apply a term of endearment to her child, than to pay a compliment to her own sensibility.

The author of the Adventurer, No. 89, has given us the following prose translation of this Fragment.

'When the raging wind began to roar, and the waves to beat so violently on the chest (ερεϊπεν) as to threaten to overset it, she threw her arm fondly around Perseus, and said, the tears trickling down her cheeks, O my son, what sorrows do I undergo! but thou art wrapt in deep slumber; thou sleepest soundly, like a sucking child, in this joyless habitation, in this dark and dreadful night, lighted only by the glimmerings of the moon! covered with thy purple mantle, thou regardest not the waves that dash around thee, nor the whistling of the winds. O thou beauteous babe! If thou wert sensible of this calamity, thou

wouldst bend thy (*λεπτός*) tender ears to my complaints. Sleep on, I beseech thee, O my child! sleep with him, O ye billows! and sleep likewise my distress!—[Here ends the translation in the Adventurer.] O father Jove! under thy protection, let the designs of my enemies be vain: and, I beseech thee, (the hopes of which at least give me some confidence and comfort, to support me amidst these calamities,) let me have justice from the hands of my child; let him revenge my sufferings.’—

‘—Mr. Bryant is of opinion, that the original history of the exposition of Perseus was no other than Noah and the ark. Mr. Greene has taken *advantage* of this hint; and has endeavoured, as he expresses himself, as far as was consistent *with a due adherence to the outlines of the text*, to recall the history itself from the corruption of fable, to the purity of its scriptural original.’

‘Mr. Greene’s Translation.

‘The ark * by skill celestial plan’d;
 Usurps the wat’ry reign;
 While low’ring o’er the † *sacred* band,
 Stern horror swells the main.
 Scar’d by the storm, the mother’s face
 Incessant tears o’erflow;
 She gently steals a fond embrace,
 And breathes the sigh of woe.
 My life, my son, the weight of cares,
 Lies heavy on my breast!
 Thine the calm seat of comfort shares
 Th’unsullied hour of rest.
 Wrap’d in the *vessel’s* dreary dome
 Thou sleep’st, immur’d from day;
It sheds tho’ sullen darkness’ home,
 A soft, *nocturnal* ray.
 Unruffled by the briny tear,
 Thy tresses’ silver pride;
 Nor ruder winds assail thine ear,
 Nor billows angry tide.
 Veil’d by the vest’s *empurpled* LIGHT,
 A *transient* smile I prove:
 ’Tis peace, ’tis rapture to the fight
 Of fond, *maternal* love!
 No dread thy little heart can feel,
 No threat’ning danger moan:
 Yet,—might’st thou ’tend a parent’s zeal
 Which wakes for thee alone!

* ‘*Λαγυαξ* is represented by Suidas as similar to *κισσός*, the very ancient term for the ark. Dion Cassius is the authority introduced by Suidas, and no other is inserted in his Dictionary to confirm it. This might rather lean towards a suspicion, that the present performance lays not the fairest claim to antiquity: *perhaps, it was a mere sacrifice to quantity!*’ GREENE.

† ‘The words printed in Italics are so distinguished by Mr. Greene himself.’

Sweet innocence, may balmy sleep
Thy helpless lids compose!
Ye waves, a placid stillness keep,
O! rest, ye train of woes!
If (daring wish!) eternal fire!
Thou spurn'st a mother's pray'r,
Wreak on my head the avenging ire!
My harmless infant spare!

This splendid version is accompanied with the following
imitation:

' But now the warring winds gan roar
The heaving billows to their utmost shore
Roll'd their hollow thunder round.
Scar'd at the terrific sound
She sunk oppress'd with pallid fear:
Gush'd from her eyes the frequent tear!
Her friendly arm—of more than * Parian hue
She round her sleeping Perseus threw.
" My child, she said, my dear delight!
Hark, to the terrors of this stormy night!
Wide o'er the wild waves the frail bark
Bounds 'mid the tempest drear and dark:
While † from her torch, that faintly glows,
The solitary Phœbe throws
Across the black uncertain vault of night
Her scatter'd beams of trembling light.
Hark! how the torrent's fury, driv'n
By the angry winds of heav'n,
Roars around thy infant head!
Thou on the purple of thy mantle laid,
Nor hear'st the whistling tempest blow
Nor the howling main below,
Sweet innocence, whose balmy cheek
Sleep's rosy fingers meek
Have dress'd in tender smiles,
Unconscious of the tort'ring ills,
The terrors that alarm thy mother's breast,
And dissipate her wonted rest.

* 'Of more than Parian hue.] For this beautiful excrescence, the translator seems to have been solely indebted to the rhyme. The same may be said of v. 37, which seems to have been suggested to him by that celebrated line of Mr. Pope, in *his Iliad*, b. I.

" The stamp of fate, and sanction of the God."

† 'Νυκτιδαμνι, says Mr. Greene, has a significancy only to be reconciled from an allusion to the primæval idea of the ark. These have been amply discussed by Mr. Bryant, in the second volume of his *Analysis*. A person of less sagacity than Mr. Greene, and less devoted to the system of Mr. Bryant, might possibly think this spirit of allegorizing the poetical fictions of antiquity depresses that enthusiasm, which is raised in the mind by a different consideration of the subject.'

Unconscious thou : else would thy list'ning ear
 These lowly strains of anguish hear :
 Else would sorrow's piercing dart
 Transfix thy bleeding heart.
 But let not the soft dews of Morpheus cease
 To lap each wearied sense in peace.
 Would the stern tyrant of the wat'ry reign
 O'er the outrageous main
 Extend his golden rod,
 The rod of peace and ensign of the God,
 To hush the tempest in repose,
 And with it all my woes.
 Father of gods and men, high Jove,
 Behold the partner of thy love !
 Let meek-eyed Pity from thy throne descend,
 Our guardian succour ; and defend
 My Perseus from the wave
 High-swallowing to o'erwhelm. O save,
 (Vain let not Hope, great ruler of the ball,
 Breathe her fond dictates at mild Pity's call,)
 O save him 'gainst my cruel foes !
 O save him to revenge an injur'd mother's woes."

The editor, speaking ironically of this performance, says :

• The merit of it consists in a happy mixture of sentiment and imagery, and a judicious application of the poetry with which it is adorned. In a word, it is no disparagement to some late translators to say, that it deserves to be ranked with their performances, and may even serve as a model to future translations from the Greek poets. The situation of Danae is such, as without doubt admits of the highest degree of poetical embellishment. In such distress the mind is awake and active, and what in calmer moments it is less attentive to, traverses the whole creation for ideas, and omits no object which can give colouring to its grief. This contrast between the language of the translation, and its original, will shew, how slight a knowledge of nature this reputed master of the pathetic really possessed.'

If this ancient poet could be sensible of the honour, which is conferred on his prosaic fragment by these *brilliant* translations, he would listen with insatiable curiosity and surprize,

• Well pleas'd to hear their *polish'd* numbers flow,
 Rob'd in the gorgeous imagery of woe.'

We have extended this article beyond the limits, which we usually assign to a pamphlet, because the subject is of the highest importance to literature and our national taste ; and this performance is a laudable attempt to explode that florid and bombastic style, which has been introduced by affected writers of almost all denominations, and is admired by injudicious readers.

Effusions of the Heart and Fancy in Verse and Prose. By the rev. Henry Hodgson, B. A. 12mo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Rivington.

THIS writer, in an advertisement prefixed to his *Effusions*, wantonly insults all the literati, who shall presume to dispute the excellence of his productions. They are, according to his account, 'wretched criticafters*', the *perfs* of the age, infants in literature, and animals that cannot write.' This comprehensive list includes all his readers and subscribers (except his admirers) and is a notable instance of his modesty and politeness.

A great part of this volume consists of elegies, odes, and other poetical pieces; in the composition of which our author seems to have employed his time with a peculiar satisfaction: for, on being importuned to quit the service of the Muses, and pursue the studies, which lead to academical honours, he gallantly exclaims,

' Say, shall I part, ye doating dreamers say,
From all that's dear, from what can charm the mind?
Like you, o'er angles doze my life away;—
O! can the Muse be patiently resign'd ?'

Perhaps, these *doating dreamers*, as he courteously calls the mathematicians of Cambridge, may ask him, in the words of Lipsius: 'Anne placeat musa pedestris & triobolaris, sordidâ & discinctâ veste, meretricula?' But such wights ought to be told, that, in the present instance, these words are totally misapplied. Our author's Muse is no triobolarian jilt, but a nymph of higher quality and accomplishments, as we may collect from the following stanza:

' Say, can a mortal quit the charmer's arms,
With whom alone he'd wish his life to spend,
When *blushes* add ten thousand *nameless charms*,
With some old ugly hag his life to blend ?'

The poet must have neither spirit nor sensibility, who can prefer the hag to the charmer, especially when the latter, as the song says, is 'going in a moment to be kind.' It appears, however, that our poetical inamorato has many of these charmers; for in the next stanza, he says,

' Pierian nymphs ! though *Fame* points out the way,
Which from your paths your fervent vot'ry draws;—
Around your steps *Fame*, Honour, Pleasures play,
And Virtue deigns to sue for your applause.'

* The Critical Reviewers paid this writer a compliment in their Review for March.

Here is a charming group, sufficient to fire the imagination of an anchoret! A number of beautiful nymphs, attended with Fame, Honour, and Pleasures, in the shape of little Cupids, playing at their feet! yet, it seems, one of these urchins, *Fame*, makes a jest of the way-faring poet, and mischievously directs him into a wrong road.

This insult seems to raise his indignation, and he positively swears, that he'll be d——d, if he stir a step.

‘ May ev’ry *curse*, which guilty mortals dread,
When I forsake ye, lov’d harmonious maids,
Be thickly shower’d on my perjur’d head,
And drive me down to Pluto’s *fiery shades*!’

Once, he confesses, he was inclined to be a rover; but now he is come to a better sense of things, and, like a suppliant lover, humbly begs pardon of the Pierian damsels:

‘ O much-lov’d Muses! O forgive the fault,
Which to mistaken notions ow’d its rise!
If e’er I swerv’d from you, though but in thought,
’Twas *longing-hope* to gain an empty prize.’

This ‘prize’ was the jointure, which he might have possessed, if he had accepted of *Mathema*, the ‘ugly hag.’ He had, indeed, formed some design of that nature, and thought of leaving the Pierian maids, who never bring their lovers any fortune; but, upon more mature consideration, he totally disclaims the old beldam, with all her trinkets:

‘ The *madness* now affects my mind no more,
The *gilded gewgaws* have no joys for me,
Empty each name *Mathema*’s * sons adore,
Muse-led I’ll search the haunts of liberty.’

What he means by ‘the haunts of liberty’ is uncertain. But as he has hitherto adopted the language of the lover, he probably means some sequestered bower, whither he and the ‘blushing’ Muse may retire, in imitation of the Trojan captain and the Tyrian princess †.

Our author concludes the elegy, from which we have taken the foregoing stanzas, with another sarcasm on the mathematicians.

‘ My mind is free, and scorns the tyrant’s sway,
Who strives to curb wild Fancy’s pleasing flight,
O let him snore o’er Newton’s page all day,
And dream of lines and angles all the night!’

* The author should have called her *Mathesis*.

† Virg. *Æn.* iv.

In the estimation of this poet, Newton's *Optics* and *Principia* are only fit for 'doating dreamers,' and calculated to lull them asleep. But he, who can thus depreciate the works of that sublime genius, let him—

' O let him snore o'er Walker's rhymes * all day,
And dream of songs and elegies all night.'

The latter part of this volume consists of Dialogues, Allegories, Dreams, Visions, Reveries, Analizers, &c. In these productions the author discovers a lively imagination; but, at the same time, no inconsiderable share of vanity, attended with a contemptuous opinion of some respectable writers.

' If, says he, my astonishment at the praises bestowed on Ossian and Dr. Langhorne, be great, it is much augmented by those lavished on the Churchills, the Lloyds, the Colmans, and the Thorntons of the age. It requires no extraordinary prophetic acumen to predict, that the hand of Time shall sweep *them* away to the *oblivion* they deserve, and *number them* with the heroes of the *Dunciad*, whose names *exist* only in the writings of Pope.'

It requires an extraordinary penetration to discover either sense or meaning in this passage. When the author tells us that time shall sweep *them* into oblivion, he cannot mean the *works* of Langhorne, Churchill, and the rest, for they are not once mentioned; nor can he mean their *names*, for they are supposed to be numbered with those that *exist* in the *Dunciad*; and consequently, are not swept into oblivion. The whole sentence is, therefore, unintelligible and absurd.

Our author may think himself extremely fortunate, if these Effusions only survive as long as the Connoisseur, or some of the other works of those writers, which, in this passage, he has treated with the highest contempt.

*Essays Moral and Literary. By the rev. Mr. Knox. In Two Vols.
Vol. II. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Dilly.*

SINCE the beginning of the present century we have had a considerable number of writers, who have thrown their lucubrations into the form of short, independent essays. Steele and Addison led the way; and their scheme was attended with uncommon success. These authors, and their most eminent successors, found by experience, that they had happily accommodated their productions to the prevailing taste, and the general disposition of mankind. The short essay, in which the author attempts to do nothing more, than skim over the subject in an

* Walker's Dictionary of Rhimes for the use of small poets.

easy and agreeable manner, is properly calculated for those readers, who never used themselves to deeper studies, to accurate investigations, or a long train of reasoning. Gay, frivolous, and volatile spirits are pleased with that **VARIETY**, which they meet with in the *Tatler*, the *Spectator*, the *Rambler*, and the *Adventurer*; where they find Oriental tales, as well as lectures of morality, and critical observations. The man of business, who has but short intervals of leisure; the ordinary reader, whose finances are narrow; the pretended scholar, and the literary fop, who want to gain a general notion of men and things, or a competent share of taste and knowledge, in an easy and expeditious manner, are fully gratified by the perusal of these miscellaneous volumes, in which almost every subject, within the great circle of literature, is occasionally discussed. But above all, the man of business, and the man of pleasure, the superficial and the volatile, the numerous tribe of triflers and loungers of both sexes, are happy to find at the end of every third or fourth page, a commodious resting-place, where they may close the book, and relieve themselves from the fatigue of thought and attention.

Besides these recommendations, the *Essays* now before us have that intrinsic merit, which cannot but render them acceptable to readers of almost every denomination.

On Epistolary Writers.

• When a writer has distinguished himself in his studied performances, and pleased us in those works, which he intended for our perusal, we become interested in all that concerns him, and wish to be acquainted with his ideas, as they flowed, without any view to their publication, in the open communications of a private and friendly correspondence. Beautiful minds, like beautiful bodies, appear graceful in an undress. The awe which they inspire, when surrounded with all their dignity, is sometimes more striking than pleasing; but we feel ourselves relieved when admitted to their familiarity. We love to retire behind the scenes, and to observe the undisguised appearance of those, who please us, when industriously decorated for public exhibition. Hence the private letters of great men have been always read with avidity.

• The Greeks have not left many models in the epistolary style. There is no doubt but Xenophon excelled in it, though most of the letters which he wrote, have either not been collected or not preserved. Those of Socrates, Antisthenes, Aristippus, Xenophon, Æschines, and Philo have never been popular. Those which pass under the name of Aristænetus, are of a taste less resembling the Attic than the oriental. The descriptions are poetically luxuriant, but the language is not pure, nor the style simple.

The *Epistles* of Phalaris have been much read by the learned, but though they are curious monuments of the genius of the tyrant, they are not admirable specimens of epistolary composition. They are more known from the violent dispute they occasioned between Bentley and Boyle, than from their intrinsic merit. In some part

of that famous controversy, Bentley says, with his usual acrimony, that Boyle had made a bad book worse by a bad edition of it.

'Cicero, the world's great model in the oratorical and the philosophical, is no less eminent in the epistolary style. He rivalled his great patterns, the Greeks, in eloquence and philosophy; he excelled them in his letters. His letters, indeed, were the genuine productions of his unassisted genius, and have a grace peculiar to themselves. Many of his other works are professedly imitations; but conducted with that art which characterises genius, and appropriates all its handles. His letters were not studied, they were the effusions of the moment, they arose from the occasion, and please from their air of truth and unaffected propriety. Whether business, pleasure, politics, philosophy, or conjugal and paternal affection, are their subjects, they are equally excellent, and equally pleasing. He wrote them without the least view of their coming to the public eye, and to this circumstance they owe a great share of their merit, their freedom from affectation. Near a thousand of them remain, and furnish abundance of historical information, at the same time that they exhibit the best models for this species of writing. They are thought not to appear to the best advantage in the specimens which Dr. Middleton has inserted in his life of Cicero. No one was better able to do them justice, than that great biographer; but it is said, he committed the task of translation to some inferior writer*.

There was an age when the letters of Pliny were preferred to those of Cicero. They have, indeed, the glitter of an artificial polish, but they want the more captivating grace of natural beauty. They were studied, and they wear the appearance of study. He who delights in elaborate and highly finished composition, will be gratified in the perusal of Pliny, but he will at the same time regret, if he has a taste for propriety, that his labour was not bestowed where it would have been better placed. In a philosophical discourse, or a formal harangue, we expect the interposition of art; but in an epistle, we look for the effusions of nature, rather than the efforts of ingenuity.

'Seneca's moral essays have little right to the name of epistles, with which he distinguished them. They are little more than a collection of common-place observations, abounding in wit and ingenious turns, but wholly destitute of elegance and grace. His faults, indeed, are sweet, as Quintillian said; but it is a sweetness which cloy, and can scarcely please any but a vitiated appetite.

'After the Latin had ceased to be a living language, many excellent books of letters were written in it. It was the universal language of learning. The literati of different nations, the rude languages of which would not repay the labour of cultivation, wisely chose to communicate their thoughts in the pure dialect of the court of Augustus. Some of the earliest of these are disgraced by the barbarism of the times. But Petrarch shines amidst the surrounding obscurity. True genius, like his, was sure to display its lustre, though it laboured under the disadvantage of a prevailing corruption of taste.

'Politian had just pretensions to true genius. There is a warmth and vigour in his poetry, which fully proves him to have been capable of attaining to a much higher degree of excellence than his premature death allowed. His epistles are elegant, but like those of Pliny, whom he imitated, they are formal and affected. They

are however pleasing to the reader, and abound with beautiful language.

Erasmus, a name that shines forth with peculiar glory in the annals of literature, justly possesses the first rank among the modern epistolary writers. His style is not purely Ciceronian, though it displays many of its graces. It is entirely his own, though it often rises to a level with classical excellence. He was not so scrupulously exact in his taste, as to reject a barbarous and Gothic expression, if it conveyed his ideas precisely. But he had the skill to use it with such propriety, that it acquired, in his writings, a grace and dignity. No man was better acquainted with the works of Cicero; no man, after a few prejudices, formed in his youth, were removed, entertained a higher opinion of his beauties, or knew better how to imitate them. But he despised the sect of Ciceronians, who would scarcely admit a particle that was not to be found in their favourite author. He ridiculed them with admirable wit and eloquence, in his dialogue *Ciceronianus*; nor would he give countenance to so ridiculous an affectation, by any part of his writings. More studious of copiousness and variety of matter, than of a scrupulous imitation of any model, he selects the most expressive word he can find in the language, and, by a judicious composition, renders it agreeable and proper. With all their defects in point of purity of language, his letters are uncommonly entertaining; and have that spirit, which genius always can exhibit, but which laborious dulness vainly imitates. There is a fund of Lucianic humour in all his more familiar writings; in his colloquies it is most conspicuous; but it is also very remarkable in many of his epistles. Had he lived in an age when polite learning was more generally encouraged and cultivated, his productions would have been models of elegance, not inferior to the boasted reliques of antiquity. But, unfortunately, he was engaged in the unpleasing disputes of pedantic theologists; and, instead of treading the flowery paths of Greek and Roman literature, for which he was adapted by nature, was obliged to toil through the thorny mazes of a barbarous, perplexed, and irrational system of divinity. His liberal mind soon perceived, and as soon avowed, the absurdity of the received modes and opinions; but he had too great a veneration for genuine christianity, to neglect those studies which his profession, as a christian and an ecclesiastic, naturally led him to cultivate. He saw, and in great measure avoided, the inelegancies which abounded in the theological writings of his times; but it was not easy always to be upon his guard against them; and his mind retained a tincture of them, as waters are polluted with the impurities through which they flow.

I omit a great number of epistolary writers, who had little merit of their own, and who derived all their fame from a servile imitation of Cicero. Among these is Paulus Manutius, who is said to have often spent a month in writing a single letter. We see, indeed, in consequence of this scrupulous attention, an elegant and truly Ciceronian phraseology; but we observe none of the native graces of unaffected composition.

Our neighbours, the French, have arrogated great merit, as epistolary writers. Their genius and their language seem to be well adapted to excel in it. But some of their most celebrated writers have renounced the advantages which nature gave them, and have spoiled all the beauties of sentiment and vivacity, by an
unseasonable

unseasonable profusion of wit. Balzac wearies his reader with the constant recurrence of laboured ingenuity.

‘Voiture abounds with beautiful thoughts expressed with great elegance. The language of compliment disgusts, in other writers, by its unmeaning sameness and formality. He has given it the grace of delicacy. But even he, though indisputably a fine writer, is justly censured by Bohours, for what are called false thoughts. Like many others, he has neglected real beauties for artificial ornaments.

‘Our own countrymen have honourably distinguished themselves in this, as well as in every other kind of elegant composition. The style of Swift is thought, by many, to excel all others. It has purity, ease, expression, and force. Pope’s letters are lively and delicate. Shenstone’s are much read; but it may be doubted whether they have that peculiar and striking excellence, which should place them among the classics of our country.

‘The late lord Chesterfield, though justly decried as a moral instructor, is admired as a writer of peculiar elegance. No man more closely and successfully imitated the French, in every circumstance. Like them, he writes with perspicuity, vivacity, and that gracefulness which is sure to please, and which he so strenuously recommends. He is himself a proof of the efficacy of grace; for with all his merit, he was certainly superficial, and yet obtained a degree of fame, which more solid writers have seldom possessed.

‘Much has been said on the epistolary style; as if any one style could be appropriated to the great variety of subjects which are treated of in letters. Ease, it is true, should distinguish familiar letters, written on the common affairs of life; because the mind is usually at ease while they are composed. But, even in these, there incidentally arises a topic, which requires elevated expression, and an inverted construction. Not to raise the style on these occasions, is to write unnaturally; for nature teaches us to express animated emotions of every kind in an animated language.

‘The impassioned lover writes unnaturally, if he writes with the ease of Sevigné. The dependant writes unnaturally to a superior, in a style of familiarity. The suppliant writes unnaturally, if he rejects the figures dictated by distress. Conversation admits of every style but the poetic, and what are letters but written conversation? The great rule is to follow nature, and to avoid an affected manner.’

Our author’s concluding maxim reminds us of a piece of affectation in the letters of lord Chesterfield, which greatly debases their elegance; that is, the frequent introduction of French and Italian phrases, where the author might have expressed his ideas in his own language, with the utmost grace and energy.

On Simplicity of Style in Prosaic Composition.

‘Food that gives the liveliest pleasure on the first taste, frequently disgusts on repetition; and those things which please the palate without satiety, are such as agitate but moderately, and perhaps originally caused a disagreeable sensation. Mental food is also found by experience to nourish best, and delight the longest, when it is not lusciously sweet. Profuse ornament, and unnecessary graces, though they may transport the reader on a first perusal,

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commonly occasion a kind of intellectual surfeit, which prevents a second.

‘Immoderate embellishment is the mark of a peculiar taste, of a weak judgment, and a little genius. It conveys the idea of too great a labour to please; an idea, which excludes the appearance of ease, without which it is difficult to effect the purpose of pleasing. If the reader enters into the author’s spirit, he finds his emotions too rapidly excited to be consistent with pleasurable feelings. Works acknowledged to be written with true taste, are found for the most part to raise gentle emotions; and when it is necessary to call up the more violent, the effect is improved from the rarity of the attempt. There is a certain equable flow of spirits, which keeps the mind in a tone for the admission of durable pleasure; but which, when hurried or exalted beyond its natural state, terminates in disgust.

‘There are several books very popular in the present age, among the youthful and the inexperienced, which have a sweetness that palls on the taste, and a grandeur that swells to a bloated turgidity. Such are the writings of some modern Germans. The *Death of Abel* is generally read, and preferred by many to all the productions of Greece, Rome, and England. The success of this work has given rise to others on the same plan, inferior to this in its real merits, and labouring under the same fault of redundant decoration. What others may feel, I know not; but I would no more be obliged to read the works of Gesner repeatedly, than to make a frequent meal on the honey-comb.

The *Meditations of Harvey*, and many books of devotion, are written in that rhapsodical style, which wearies by its constant efforts to elevate the mind to extacy. They have, it is true, a useful effect on the rude and uncultivated, who are seldom penetrated but by forcible impressions; but the pleasure they give is not sufficiently elegant and refined to attach the more polished reader.

‘Poetical prose, as all such writings may be called, seems by no means correspondent to classical ideas of beauty. There is no model of it among writers in the golden ages, and it has seldom been attempted by the first rank of moderns. Fenelon, indeed, succeeded in it, but he richly intermixed the beautiful flowers originally culled by Homer and Virgil. Genius, assisted by classical learning, can give a grace to compositions formed on a plan not quite conformable to the most approved taste.

‘Many modern sermons, while their authors aimed at sublimity and a highly figurative eloquence, have become turgid and affected. The simple majesty of the sacred writings affords a proper model for sacred oratory; and it must be owned, to the honor of the regular clergy, that they have commonly imitated it; and that the high-flown, enthusiastic, and pompous harangue has usually been the production of those who have renounced reason in matters of taste as well as of religion. Addressed to the meanest capacities in the lowest orders, it may have produced a desirable effect in compelling their attention, and in warming their inflammable passions. But, it is to be feared, its effect was but temporary, and it is certain that it can never possess a place among the elegant works of literature.

‘It is agreeable to the mind to be occasionally roused by a powerful stroke; but it suffers a kind of smart, from a continual repetition of the blow. It is merely teased and wearied by the feeble

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yet uninterrupted attack of the impotent writer, whose inclination stimulates while genius flags.

The Bible, the Iliad, and Shakespeare's works are allowed to be the sublimest books that the world can exhibit. They are also truly simple; and the reader is more affected by their indisputable sublimity, because his attention is not wearied by ineffectual attempts at it. He who is acquainted with Longinus will remember, that the instances adduced by that great pattern of the excellence he describes, are not remarkable for a glaring or a pompous style, but derive their claim to sublimity from a noble energy of thought, modestly set off by a proper expression.

No author has been more universally approved than Xenophon. Yet his writings display no appearance of splendour or majesty; nothing elevated or adorned with figures; no affectation of superfluous ornament. His merit is an unaffected sweetness, which no affectation can obtain. The graces seem to have conspired to form the becoming texture of his composition. And yet, perhaps, a common reader would neglect him, because the easy and natural air of his narrative rouses no violent emotion. More refined understandings peruse him with delight; and Cicero has recorded that Scipio, when once he had opened the books of Xenophon, would with difficulty be prevailed with to close them. His style, says the same great orator and critic, is sweeter than honey, and the Muses themselves seem to have spoken from his mouth.

Julius Cæsar is thought to have resembled him in his style, as he did in the circumstance of profession. He has nothing florid or or grand, but, like a gentle river, flows on with a surface unruffled. A wonderful instance of moderation, to have recounted his own achievements with accuracy, yet without being, for a moment, betrayed into an unbecoming pomp either of diction or representation. Yet with all the gracefulness of modesty and simplicity, he has an air of grandeur that commands respect. Ostentatious ornament would indeed have been contemptible deformity.

Cicero, who understood and valued the simplicity of Xenophon, was, however, himself sometimes guilty of its violation. He adopted the Asiatic manner in some of his orations, and they are sometimes more verbose, diffuse and affected, than an Attic taste can patiently endure. But it is a kind of sacrilege, as well as presumption, to detract from the deserved glory of a man, who in his life and writings advanced human nature to the highest perfection.

The French nation is an affected nation; but many of their authors have written with remarkable simplicity. Fontaine and Fontenelle are acknowledged to have equalled in this beauty the antient models. They have, however, writers of the other kind, and I must own, I never could admire many of their boasted orators. Even their Bossuet and their Bourdaloue are not adapted to the taste of an English or an Attic audience.

Simplicity is not in general the distinguishing beauty of English writers. The spirit and solemnity of disposition have sometimes given their writings an ill-placed pomp and magnificence. But the works of an Addison and a Sterne, and the reception they have met with, will vindicate the nation from the charge of wanting taste for simple beauty. The antients have been much imitated in England; and where that is the case, a taste for simplicity will some-

* Mr. Knox is frequently inattentive to that simplicity, which he recommends.

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times get the better of prevailing Gothicism. The German manner, it is hoped, will not supplant the Attic.

To write in a plain manner appears easy in theory; but how few in comparison have avoided the fault of unnecessary and false ornament! The greater part seem to have mistaken unwieldly corpulence for robust vigour, and to have despised the temperate habit of sound health as meagreness. The taste for finery is more general than for symmetrical beauty and chaste elegance; and many, like Nero, would not be content till they had spoiled, by gilding it, the statue of a Lyfippus.

This Essay contains many just remarks, and deserves the perusal of every one, who wishes to form a proper notion of elegance in composition. That beautiful simplicity, which we admire in many of the classics, is too much neglected by the generality of modern writers. Some of the most celebrated productions of the present age abound in turgid expressions, inverted constructions, and a profusion of metaphorical images. These are gross violations of nature, indications of a vicious taste, and symptoms of declining eloquence.

Demoniacs. An Enquiry into the Heathen and the Scripture Doctrine of Demons. In which the Hypothesis of the rev. Mr. Farmer, and others on this Subject, are particularly considered. By John Fell. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Dilly.

MOST of the learned writers, who oppose what is called the vulgar notion of possessions, maintain, that the more immediate objects of religious worship among the heathens were dead men, or departed human spirits; that the word demon is not only used by the heathens themselves for their deities, but also by the sacred writers for the objects of pagan worship; that the latter by demons understand nothing more than the souls of deceased persons; and that, since the holy scriptures every where assure us, that the heathen deities, or demons, have no power to do either good or harm, much less to work miracles, it follows, that their never was, nor ever could be, a real demoniac in the world.—Such is the reasoning, as Mr. Fell states it, opposed to the common interpretation of those passages in the gospel, which relate to demoniacal possessions.

Accordingly, Mr. Farmer, in his Dissertation on Miracles, asserts, 'that it is a fact attested by all antiquity, whether Pagan, Jewish, or Christian, that the more immediate objects of popular adoration among the heathens were deified human beings.' On this principle he supports his Essay on the Demoniacs, and thus introduces his arguments: 'We have elsewhere examined the meaning of demons, when applied to the objects of popular worship in the heathen world, and shewn, from the united testimony of Pagans and Jews, from the au-
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thors of the Septuagint version of the Old Testament, and from the writers of the New, that we are hereby to understand such human spirits, as superstition deified. We are now to enquire, whether the word be not used in the same sense by all the ancients, when they speak upon the subject of possessions.'

In this Enquiry Mr. Fell undertakes to prove, that the reverse of all this is true, and may be proved from the united testimony of both the pagans, and the sacred writers.

Whoever, he says, is acquainted with the theogonies of the heathens, and the ancient histories of their gods, preserved among the Greeks, and with the story of Prometheus, cannot well be ignorant, that the greatest part of those deities, to whom the heathens sacrificed, were by them considered as existing before the creation of man. This, he thinks, is sufficiently clear from Hesiod's Theogony, in which he thus addresses the Muses: 'Hail, daughters of Jove, celebrate the divine originals of the immortals, always existing, who were produced from the earth and starry heaven.' He produces the testimony of Herodotus, who asserts, 'that the Persians worshipped the whole circle of heaven, which they called Jupiter; that they sacrificed to the sun and moon, to the earth, the fire, the water, and the winds, and to these alone.' Lib. i. 131. He tells us, likewise, on the authority of the same writer, (though this, we must observe, is not so clearly expressed) 'that the only gods, in the manner of whose worship the Egyptians all agreed, were Isis and Osiris, the sun and moon; that they paid no religious honours to heroes; that they would not allow a man could be begotten by a god, or that the gods were conversant with men.' To these and many other passages from Herodotus, he subjoins the testimony of Plato, who says: 'The first inhabitants of Greece thought the sun and moon, the earth, the stars, and the heaven, to be the only gods; as do most of the barbarians, at this time.' Cratyl. p. 273.

In the second section, the author shews, that Moses, in his minute descriptions of the idolatry of his own times, makes no mention of the souls of dead men, as objects of religious worship; nor ever intimates, that any of their emblematic figures were in the shape of men, though he carefully enumerates (Deut. iv. xvii.) the several kinds, according to the similitude of which their images were made: that he does not give us one instance of offering sacrifices to departed souls; and that there is but one passage in the Old Testament, which has the least appearance of a proof, that the Israelites were ever concerned in worship paid to dead men; and this passage, if rightly explained, is nothing to the purpose: 'They joined them-

themselves to Baal-Peor, and ate the sacrifices of the dead.* Psal. cvi. 28. Here the word *Metim*, he observes, does not signify dead men, but inanimate idols.

With respect to the word demon, he says, 'Since the ancient Greeks have applied it to all ranks of intelligent and invisible beings, both good and evil, it must be allowed as a natural consequence from the general and extensive use of this term, that the apostles might on the subject of possessions, apply it to wicked and malignant spirits, without intending either the souls of departed men, or the immediate objects of pagan idolatry; and since they themselves have defined a possessing demon to be an evil spirit, without affixing to it either of these ideas, we have no right whatever to assert, that such was their meaning. We might as well affirm, that Bucephalus, because a quadruped, was therefore really an ox, or that a snail and a serpent are the same thing, because they both creep.'

'It is evident, that the heathens, as well as the sacred writers, do assert the existence of intelligent beings, both good and evil, far superior to the nature of man; and that the holy scriptures do often represent those beings, as employed in the administration of divine Providence.'

In the fourth section, concerning the demons mentioned in the gospel, he observes, that 'it is a very gross abuse of language to represent the possessing demons, mentioned in the gospel, as nothing more than the souls of departed men, since the evangelists have never given the least intimation of any such thing; that the good spirits cannot be supposed under this use of the word, as possessing demons are expressly styled wicked and unclean spirits; and that the heathen gods could never be understood by the term, for two reasons; first, because the sacred writers have with one voice proclaimed the utter impotence of those demons; and next, because the inspired penmen only affirm, that the Gentiles sacrifice to demons. It is no where said in the whole scriptures, that they sacrificed to evil spirits, or that all their gods were wicked and unclean demons, no nor yet that any of them were such; though it is well known, that some of the heathens did professedly sacrifice to evil beings: the description, therefore, of the pagan deities, both in the Old and New Testament, by no means answers to the definition of possessing demons in the gospel.'

He then proceeds to shew, that the arguments, alledged against the scripture doctrine concerning demoniacs, are inconclusive.

On this head, he thus concludes his observations :

‘ Many of the arguments, urged by Mr. Farmer against dæmoniacal possessions, affect the competency of the apostles as witnesses, and the credit of the sacred history, as much as they can do the doctrine in dispute ; while at the same time they imply a denial of the most capital articles of the Christian faith, expressly asserted in the Holy Scriptures. The principles, on which he grounds all that he hath written concerning the nature of miracles, and the agency of evil spirits are these, “ That none besides Jehovah, the one true God, can controul the laws and course of nature ; and that no superior beings whatever, but God himself, are capable of producing any effects on this earthly globe, or within the limits of the human system. Hence he appropriates all miracles to God alone ; having first, without any real occasion for it, or advantage to his own system, arbitrarily defined such works to be a violation of the laws of nature : and on the same principle he rejects dæmoniacal possessions ; after assuring us, without any proof, that all effects arising from the supposed influence of evil spirits would be contrary to those general rules by which the world is governed, as well as inconsistent with the natural power of such beings. His arguments, therefore, on this subject, notwithstanding the great pains which he hath taken to conceal it, seem to be directly pointed against all that hath been advanced by the sacred writers, concerning good and evil angels, the entrance of sin and death into the world, the pernicious agency of the devil, and the reason which is every where assigned in the gospel for the appearance of Christ and the kingdom of God.’

In the next section, the author endeavours to shew, that the principles on which Mr. Farmer denies the agency of superior beings, within the limits of the human system, are either inapplicable to the gospel demoniacs, or a flat contradiction to the holy scriptures.

‘ If, says he, Mr. Farmer should at any future time assert, (what is scarcely possible) “ that he did really believe, while he wrote his Dissertation on Miracles, and his Essay on Demoniacs, that there are superior created intelligences both good and evil, which operate within the limits of the human system,” his “ Essay” will become a mere hypothesis, and all his arguments against dæmoniacal possessions must fall to the ground, as totally useless ; since no one imputes those effects to deceased persons : they are ascribed to beings originally superior to the nature of man, whose operation, within the limits of the human system, will, in this case, be acknowledged by himself. Nor do we suppose, that possessions are miracles ; by no means : the scriptures never speak of them as such : common occurrences cannot be attributed to a miraculous power, by whatever means they may be brought to pass. Now, he hath

not even attempted to prove, that although superior spirits do operate within the limits of the human system, they are yet not capable of producing any of those ordinary effects which we observe in the world; or that they never operate upon mankind in a manner imperceptible by the human senses: hence then it clearly follows, according to this supposition of Mr. Farmer's opinion, that the chief article to be proved, in this controversy, is never once mentioned; while we are amused with learned disquisitions, concerning various articles which are nothing at all to the purpose. On the other hand, if, agreeably with the principles of the "Dissertation," to which we are constantly referred in the "Essay," Mr. Farmer really believes, that there are no superior created intelligences, which ever did or can operate within the limits of the human system, and on this supposition grounds all his reasoning against dæmoniacal possessions, then the whole of his two volumes must be considered as a calm and direct contradiction to the language of Scripture, concerning the agency both of good and evil angels, the entrance of sin and death, and the design of our Lord's appearance in the world, which was to "destroy the works of the devil;" and all that he hath written concerning angels and dæmons, in this case, can be viewed in no other light than as an attempt to conceal the opposition of his doctrines to the principles of revelation.

In order to shew more fully what are these principles of revelation, the author points out many passages of scripture, which either imply, or directly assert, the agency of evil spirits within the human system: such as those in which the devil is represented as a tempter, a deceiver, a destroyer, a liar, a murderer from the beginning, &c.

In considering the scripture doctrine concerning dæmoniacal possessions, he endeavours to shew that they are consistent with many appearances, both in the natural and moral world. Among other observations on this point he has the following:

'Nothing can happen without a cause. The frequent effects that attend madness as much require an adequate cause as the most extraordinary events in ancient times; many of the appearances in maniacal cases are such as intimate an intelligent cause; but if this notion be thought so very absurd, let these appearances be fairly accounted for without the immediate agency of any such cause, and let the error of the sacred writers, in attributing so many different events to the influence of superior created spirits be clearly ascertained. Till these things are done, it is neither candid nor philosophical to reproach others for believing dæmoniacal possessions.'

In the last place, our author alleges, that the sacred writers not only assert, but produce different facts, in order to prove the reality of dæmoniacal possessions.

Speaking

Speaking of the Gadarene demoniacs, he says, 'None of those who have been most zealous in supporting the notion of demoniacal possessions could ever express the doctrine in a stronger or more decisive manner than the evangelists have done. We must either admit the agency of evil spirits in this case, or entirely reject their accounts as unworthy of Christ; which would be to overthrow the credit of the three evangelists relating what they heard and saw, and with theirs that of the whole gospel, while at the same time it would have the appearance of an unreasonable attack upon the faith of all history.'

At the conclusion he displays the injurious consequences, which, he thinks, will attend the notion he opposes: the first and principal one is this:

'If no superior created beings ever had any power over mankind, it follows, that the account given in the scriptures concerning the fall of man and the entrance of death, by the malice and treachery of the devil, is altogether erroneous and delusive, unworthy of credit, and calculated only to betray the reader into superstitious opinions and groundless apprehensions.'

These are some of the general sentiments, which the learned author has more fully explained and supported in the course of this enquiry. Though he attempts to defend what many readers will consider as a vulgar and absurd hypothesis, yet he appears to be a very respectable writer; and many of his observations are important. His arguments in opposition to Dr. Farmer's notion, 'That the more immediate objects of popular adoration among the heathens were deified human spirits,' are at least extremely plausible, and deserve the attentive consideration of every one who wishes to form a just and consistent opinion on the subject. Though, after all, we do not apprehend that the establishment of this point, in the sense for which Mr. Farmer contends, is essentially necessary to the support of an hypothesis, which ascribes the disorders, called demoniacal possessions, to epilepsy or madness. In this case it signifies very little, what the sentiments of the heathens and the Jews really were, concerning the gods and goddesses of antiquity. For whether they were creatures of the imagination, the representations of natural objects, or deified human spirits, they were equally impotent and insignificant.

Lucius Junius Brutus; or, the *Expulsion of the Tarquins*: an Historical Play. By Hugh Downman. 8vo. 3s. Wilkie.

THE plot of this tragedy is taken from Livy, and other Roman historians. The principal circumstances are the cruelties of Tarquin, the licentiousness of his sons, the scheme

of Junius Brutus to avoid assassination by a pretended idiotism, the rape of Lucretia, the heroic resolution formed on this occasion by Brutus, Collatinus the husband of Lucretia, her father Lucretius, and P. Valerius, afterwards called Poplicola; and lastly, the expulsion of the Tarquins.

The author has not confined himself to the rules usually observed by dramatic writers; he has only attempted 'to fill up a picture of real life, in a certain given time, taking the outlines from historical facts.'

In this view his performance has great merit: the events are interesting and important, the characters properly diversified and well supported, and the sentiments of the speakers, such as are suitable to the spirit of ancient Romans.

But, with respect to the composition, there are some small defects; or, at least, some little circumstances, which we look upon in that light, *viz.* passages which seem to be entirely superfluous, and others which are too prolix. For example, the observations of the Roman people during Brutus's harangue in the Forum, are trifling.—In many places the language is inelegant or incorrect. As the ingenious author would certainly wish to remove these blemishes in the next edition, we shall take the liberty to mention two or three passages which may be easily improved.

————— 'Scarce are our souls

Our own?'

A vulgar phrase.

'But in the day each wears the face of loyalty,
Nor dares, so *jealous* are these *growling times*,
E'en in his brother's bosom pour the secret,
Which *ulcerating* preys upon his heart.

How we two thus have *dared* communicate

Our thoughts *either to other*, is to me

Most strange, and *passing marvel*.'

'I *would I was* in Rome, or Rome *was* here.

Why now indeed thy airy spirits dance,

Sparkling in *either* eye; but when I met thee,

What *wert* thou then?'

Wert for *wast* frequently.

'Dancing to the *bonied* notes of gladness.'

'Acted on principles, which my soul *started*,

And hands *dared* execute.'

'Cause him *display* his angry trident.'

'I could not laugh, though smiles were *plenty* with me,

As th' *hairs* upon my head.'

'Impossible! *tut*, there's a word: impossible!'

————— 'What ails thee? *Art* not well?'

'Lucretia,

————— 'Lucretia,
That blow hath killed us both. Oh, *wife! wife! wife!*

————— 'Wherefore did I wed,
Why get a daughter?' ————

'Now will I *fit me* down, and try to bear
Hateful old age.'

These few examples, we apprehend, will be sufficient to justify the observation we have made on the author's inattention to the purity and elegance of his language. If it should be said, it was his professed design to make his diction plain and simple, we must observe, that simplicity and vulgarity are very different qualities.

However, we can venture to assure the reader, that there are beauties in this performance, which will more than counterbalance its defects, and give him real pleasure in the perusal.

Political Arithmetick. Part II. Containing Considerations on the Means of raising the Supplies within the Year. Occasioned by Mr. Pulteney's Pamphlet on that Subject. By Arthur Young, Esq. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

THE first part of this work, which was published about five years ago, contained Observations on the Present State of Great Britain, and the Principles of her Policy in the Encouragement of Agriculture *. After a variety of pertinent introductory observations, the Author proceeds to investigate the principles in Mr. Pulteney's pamphlet, respecting the impossibility of raising the supplies within the year. He admits that the advantages which the latter states to arise from such a measure, are not exaggerated; and that they would in no instance be found stronger than in the rise of the value of landed property. He affirms, that the high interest paid for the late loans has sunk the value of land five years purchase; and in many instances, which he happens to be acquainted with, much more. Those he observes, who are not under the necessity of selling do not feel this, but it crushes others who find themselves in that situation; and the premiums paid, in order to get money on mortgage, have the same effect.

Mr. Pulteney has proposed $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. benevolence on all the capital of the kingdom, to the amount of a thousand millions; but Mr. Young is of opinion, that the enormous fall in the value of every species of fund yielding income, appears to be an insurmountable obstacle to all assessments on the *value* of solid property; *income*, in the present times, being out of all

* See Critical Review, vol. xxxviii. 202, 365.

proportion more valuable than the property which yields it. For as the largest solid property may exist in lands, without a possibility of converting any part of it into money but with a great loss, no tax, regulated by the value of the year, would be productive, unless on income.

Mr. Young rejects the idea of imposing an equal land tax in this kingdom; since to be equal, it must be varying, and a tax vibrating with rent and improvements, would crush the agriculture of this, as it has done of every country where introduced. He farther observes, that the present tax of four shillings in the pound is, in the eastern counties, a considerable burthen; and that an addition which did not go to equalizing the old assessment over the kingdom, would prove grievous to those counties.

This author severely condemns the polity of the nation in respect of the poor rates, which he considers as virtually a land tax, if not to the full amount, at least to a considerable proportion. The inconveniencies resulting from this assessment demand the more serious consideration, as it has risen of late years with an amazing rapidity, and that at a time when it ought to have sunk with the price of corn. This circumstance, Mr. Young observes, affords much reason for believing that the rise is in no degree limited to the increase of want, but is the effect of growing idleness and extravagance; to both which the application of the tax is a direct premium.

Mr. Pulteney, by a calculation of the land produce, has estimated the national income at forty millions a year; and from supposing the number of the people in Great Britain seven millions, and their consumption 7l. 10s. per annum, he makes it fifty-two millions and a half. But Mr. Young thinks, that, upon this supposition, the calculation of the land income is erroneous; and to confirm this opinion, he presents us with a detail of particulars, which he remarked on his journies through England. These particulars tend to ascertain the gross income of the soil, and its distribution, from the average of the accounts he had stated in his northern and eastern tours. They are founded upon the supposition, that there are thirty-four millions of acres in England (exclusive of Wales) and that rivers, towns, cities, houses, parks, chaces, royal forests, and commons, amount to two millions. According to Mr. Young's estimate, it appears that the gross product of thirty-two millions of acres amounts, on an average, to 2l. 3s. 6d. per acre. The usual calculation for the rental of England and Wales (exclusive of Scotland) has been twenty millions; which, in the opinion of all who are conversant in husbandry, must probably produce much more than seventy-

two millions; for Mr. Young observes, that the idea of *three* rents, which is much above a hundred years old, has been long exploded. Our farmers, says he, could not exist a single year with no more than such a produce.

By the same enquiries it appears, that the total capital employed in husbandry amounts to 122,125,979l. of which our author specifies the annual expenditure.

Another article of land product, but generally overlooked, is the landlord's receipt for timber. This article, Mr. Young observes, is very considerable; but there are no data for calculating the amount. He has gone over some inclosed estates, upon which it amounts to three-fourths per cent. on the value, and not remarkably well managed: if it comes over the whole to one-fourth per cent. on the value of the rental, at twenty-five years purchase, it will amount to one million two hundred thousand pounds a year. This calculation does not include the rentals of cities and towns, which has been supposed to amount to two millions. Our author adds, that perhaps the income of mines in rent and labour, if known, would not be less than two millions more.

Notwithstanding the great incumbrances of the nation, Mr. Young contends that it is still capable of bearing temporary additional burthens, and that these ought by no means to be considered as a payment without return. It would, he observes, be a very considerable return to have done with money lenders; by which means the vast sums hoarded by bankers would presently spread over the kingdom, and animate every species of industry. Land, instead of selling from twenty to twenty-five years purchase, would rise from twenty-seven to thirty-two. Mortgages would no longer be ruinous, and the three per cents. would be at least at 88, as they were four years ago.

Towards defraying the expences of the state, our author is of opinion that the poor rates might be made gradually to contribute a million a year; and he farther thinks, with Mr. Pulteney, that an excise on tea, sugar, tobacco, wine, spirits, and malt, might produce a million more.

Mr. Young afterwards enters upon a refutation of some principles advanced by Dr. Smith, and adopted by Mr. Pulteney, purporting that there is no distinction between the expenditure of the public money abroad and at home. Our author observes, it is circulation alone that renders taxes supportable; and upon this very point would depend the practicability of Mr. Pulteney's scheme of raising the supplies within the year.

In the course of these Considerations, our author suggests a remark, which, as it exposes an instance of the errors that

may result from the want of discrimination on political subjects, deserves to be noticed. He informs us, that since the commencement of hostilities in America, the war has been frequently lamented as a cause of the depopulation of England. He also observes, that Mr. Pinto, in his Essay on Circulation, repeatedly speaks of wars as causes of depopulation. Mr. Young admits, that under certain circumstances, these assertions are well founded, but in others they are not. The mere loss of men, he observes, is, in most cases, to be set quite out of the question; but if wars prove the occasion of such measures within the state as cause a diminution of employment, certainly they depopulate, not by killing the men that go abroad, but by preventing those from living that stay at home. It is therefore oppressive taxes, or a bad government, rather than war, that diminish the people; because the effect would as certainly attend such causes in time of profound peace.

This, like the former part of Mr. Young's Political Arithmetick, abounds with shrewd observations, and affords a variety of suggestions relative to the national supplies. The author has added two appendixes, one of which contains the accounts laid before a committee of the House of Commons, of some of the hundred-houses already established in the kingdom; and the other is a table of what every county paid in land tax and poor rates in 1775, with the price of wheat.

Letters to a Nobleman, on the Conduct of the War in the Middle Colonies. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wilkie.

THE design of these Letters is to evince, that the continuance of the rebellion in America has been owing entirely to the misconduct of Sir William Howe, who is accordingly charged with a series of extraordinary blunders. But before the writer enters upon this subject, he takes a short view of the origin and progress of the American commotions; endeavouring, at the same time, to discredit the opinion, that the people in the revolted colonies are almost unanimously disaffected to their sovereign, and wish to be disunited in government from this country. In refutation of such an idea, he observes, that during the last war, no part of his majesty's dominions contained a greater proportion of faithful subjects than the Thirteen Colonies. This being the case, he asks, how can it happen, that a people so lately loyal, should so suddenly become universally disloyal, and firmly attached to republican government, without any grievances or oppressions but

but those in anticipation? The tax assigned as the cause of their disaffection, was really a relief, not a burthen. Had it been a burthen, it was never felt; and had it been felt, it was of a most trivial nature. No fines, no imprisonments, no oppressions that could produce such an effect among the colonists, had been experienced by them. All these circumstances, the author remarks, are inconsistent with the possibility of a sudden and universal disaffection; and he therefore assigns a more probable account of the source of American commotions.

‘ Before the last war, says he, there were men in America, as in all other countries, of considerable abilities, and little fortune,—restless and ambitious spirits,—educated in republican principles, and of course destitute of those habits and attachments which would have formed and fixed their loyalty; but their number was small. These men spoke and wrote of the independence of America, as an event which might happen in future, but did not venture to express a wish that it might, or could be, in their time. When the stamp act took place, they were the first to incite the people to opposition. The plausibility of the arguments against the right of parliament to tax them, prevailed on many to think those arguments reasonable, and to wish for a repeal; but these restless and unprincipled men, to prepare the minds of the people for their yet latent scheme of independence, incited mobs, consisting of a few abandoned men in two or three of the American ports, much against the tempers of the people at large, to destroy the stamped paper. The people, in general, disapproved of this violent and seditious mode of opposition to a British statute, and pursued a different measure, equally decent and dutiful. They petitioned their constitutional representatives, and these petitioned parliament for a repeal of that act, declaring, that they were ready to grant their proportions of aids whenever required by the crown. You know, my lord, the success these petitions produced. I can affirm, that on this occasion, very little, if any change was wrought in the loyalty of the colonists, although great pains were not wanting to effect it.

‘ When the tea act passed, the same men, determined to lose no opportunity of promoting their favourite scheme of independence, stirred up the rabble in several of the sea-ports, headed by the smuggling merchants, whose interest alone was affected by the act, to seize the tea, and in one of the colonies to destroy it. But in this the people at large took no part.

‘ In consequence of the illegal and unjustifiable destruction of the tea in Boston, the act for stopping up that port was passed; this afforded another opportunity for the exercise of violent spirits. Every art was used to draw the people of that town into violent measures. The country was called upon to join them, but in vain; far from any views of independence, the people honestly declared, that a violent act of injustice had been committed, and that reparation ought to be made.

‘ These daring spirits having, however, by various arts and incessant exertions, procured, in most of the colonies, a party of men immediately interested in the repeal of the tea act, of the most restless dispositions, of bankrupt fortunes, and dishonest principles, proposed a general congress, under pretence of uniting in *decent and proper measures*, for obtaining a repeal of these statutes.

But

But they carefully concealed their principal design of separating the two countries, and establishing independent governments, because they knew the minds and affections of the people, and even of some of those who were zealous opposers of the acts, were too firmly attached to the British government to endure the thought; and they had not as yet obtained a power sufficient to enforce the measure.

This proposal of a congress was by no means generally approved by the people. They thought, that their respective assemblies were most proper to petition, and to obtain a redress of their grievances; they knew, that the assemblies were their legal representatives, that the appointment of a congress would be by themselves a violation of those rights which they complained of in others; and they were apprehensive, that persons illegally appointed, might not pursue reasonable and legal measures; or if they did, that they would not be so successful in the event, as if proposed and pursued under a constitutional authority. For these reasons they relied on their assemblies. But, while the great bulk of the people acted on such rational and loyal principles, the violent few proceeded to chuse their committees and conventions, and these to chuse their delegates in congress. Under this circumstance, it was an easy task for the independent faction, to prevail on a few restless and weak men to appoint many of their own number. However zealous the electors might be in opposing the statutes of which they wished for a repeal, yet there were many among them whose opposition was meant to extend no further.

In support of what is above asserted, the author appeals to the instructions given to the delegates in congress, which were so far from authorizing them to promote the independence of the colonies, or to take up arms, that all of them, either expressly, or by the fullest implication, prohibited such measures.

It farther appears, that after the establishment of the congress, the people in general were extremely averse to the unconstitutional authority it assumed; and they testified their dissatisfaction both by positive declarations, and by withholding their concurrence at the election of delegates. In Pennsylvania, where are upwards of thirty-thousand voters, all the members of the New State were chosen for the year 1778, by less than two hundred. In New York, at a contested election for the same year, when two persons contended for the office of governor, they were not able to prevail on more than a thousand voters to attend, although all the people capable of voting in that large province had a right to vote. In King's County, Mr. Boerum was chosen by one person only, although that district contained near a thousand voters.

Various others instances, and many arguments, are adduced, tending to disprove the opinion of a general disaffection of the colonies; but we shall now quit this subject, for the more interesting observations relative to the prosecution of the war.

From

From major-general Robertson's evidence before the house of commons, we find that the foot and cavalry sent over to America, amounted to 52,815; of which number 40,874 were under the command of sir William Howe. When the latter arrived at Staten-Island, the resolutions of Congress, recommending independence to the colonies, had just passed. According to the representation of this writer, the powers of the old governments were not entirely destroyed, nor the new states established. The independents themselves were divided into factions respecting the forms of government they meant to institute. All their affairs were embarrassed, and in the greatest confusion. The rebel force, which had been seduced into arms, under a pretence of obtaining a redress of grievances, did not amount to 18000 men, militia included; and this inequality of the forces on each side, our author observes, was greatly increased by other circumstances respecting military discipline, appointments, &c.

Having taken a comparative view of the strength of the two armies, the author next treats of the general conduct of the war, which appears to have been left entirely to the judgment of the commander in chief, who was circumscribed by no other instructions than to support the northern army under general Burgoyne, and to make a diversion in its favour on the New England coasts; a measure which was recommended to him in the strongest terms, in a letter from lord George Germaine of the 3d of March, 1777. Sir William Howe's general plans for conducting the war are severely reprehended; nor are the author's remarks on their execution less distinguished by a strain of forcible censure.

Sir William Howe is also condemned for his inactivity through the following winter, in suffering an inferior enemy, during the space of six months, to remain within twenty-five miles of his head-quarters without molestation; and continually to insult and distress his troops with impunity.

We are informed, that from December to the middle of June, while the British troops in the Jerseys remained in this disagreeable situation, the congress of the rebel states in all quarters were making every exertion to recruit Washington's army. But such was the disaffection of the country, that men would not enlist; when drafted from the militia, they, to avoid the service, fled from their districts to places where they were not known; and when embodied, they often deserted in whole companies before they joined the army. Until the beginning of June, Washington's numbers did not amount to eight thousand men, militia included. The rebel states, it appears, could never collect their force till the middle of that month;

month; a circumstance, the author observes, which ought to have dictated to the British commander the good policy of an early campaign. But though it appears from the narrative, that there was nothing to oppose this measure, the campaign was not opened till the 12th of June.

After a detail of many interesting facts, the author takes a short review of the conduct of sir William Howe. He observes, that the latter relinquished to an army, of not a sixth part of his strength, all West, and a great part of East New Jersey, without a single struggle to retain them. That he afterwards retreated before the same enemy, with less than one third of his effective strength, dismantling every fortification, and evacuating every post in a province, which had already cost the nation so much blood and treasure.

Sir William Howe appears to have been extremely irresolute respecting the military operations in the campaign of 1777. By his letter dated the 20th of January, he proposes 'to penetrate with the main body of the army by way of Jersey into Pennsylvania.' This plan, though approved by his majesty, was afterwards abandoned by the general, for reasons, we are told, which never existed; and by a letter of the 2d of April, he proposes 'to invade Pennsylvania by sea.' But this project, like the former, was also in a short time deserted, and the commander pursued his ill-advised scheme, of transporting his whole army round to the Chesapeake, and invading Pennsylvania through Maryland and Virginia. The impropriety of this expedition is placed in a very striking point of view, in the following extract.

'The motives which led the general to this fatal expedition are, as yet, and I suspect ever will be, a mystery; because, I am certain, none can be assigned which promised any advantage over his enemy, or which could possibly render his circumstances better than when he was at Hillsborough, where he had that enemy perfectly in his power, and of course where he might have extinguished the rebellion. He could not but know that this expedition would greatly delay the operations of the campaign, and render it impossible, however necessary it might be, to support the northern army. He could not but know, that by leaving Washington in Jersey, and suffering him to insult his retreating army, great disadvantages would be incurred, and that the transportation of that army several hundred miles by water, would take up much time, give the rebels new spirits, and enable them to make new exertions to increase their force, not only against the southern but northern army. And he perfectly well knew the difficulties and delays which he would meet with in his voyage, because he was forewarned of them. Charity, in its utmost extent, will not induce us to believe the contrary. And yet, however inconsistent this expedition was with the plain dictates of common policy, and however portentous of fatal events to the northern army, and to the service in general, we find him determined to pursue it, though it was approved by no mortal

mortal but himself; nay, though it presumptuously superseded the plan which had the approbation of his sovereign.

But let us more minutely state the facts, and trace the effects of this unfortunate expedition. The troops were embarked in ships on the 5th of July, where both foot and cavalry remained pent up in the hottest season of the year, in the unhealthy holds of the vessels, until the 23d, without the least apparent cause. On that day, they sailed out of the Hooke, but meeting with contrary winds, as had been positively foretold, they did not arrive in the capes of Delaware until the 30th. Had the British general inclined to render this expedition as little injurious to the attainment of the great object of his commission as possible, he would have passed up the Delaware to Philadelphia. Every possible circumstance favoured the manœuvre. The wind was fair at south-west. Washington still believing it impossible, that he could desert the co-operation with the northern army, remained in New Jersey. There was not a regular troop in Pennsylvania, a few recruiting parties excepted. The fort at Mud Island was garrisoned only by 130 militia, and Billingsport with 90. The floating batteries were not manned, the lower chevaux de frize were not placed in the river. The chain was not finished; the passage from the capes to Philadelphia was open; Red Bank was not fortified or occupied; in short, there was nothing to oppose the taking possession of Mud Island fort, the city of Philadelphia, and all the rebel water-guard in Delaware. The congress and rebel state were in the utmost panic, and preparing to fly a second time. But all these favourable circumstances could not induce the British general to pursue that plan which his sovereign had approved. He rather chose yet longer to combat the uncertainties and dangers of the ocean, than to surprise the rebels who were unprepared to receive him. He therefore proceeded round to the Elk Ferry, where he arrived after a voyage of more than three weeks, on the 23d of August.

Here charity commands us to believe, that he began to repent of his folly, and to think that he had carried his military farce too far. The circumstances of his army certainly were sufficient to alarm him. His infantry had been near two months pent up in vessels, feeding on salt provisions only, and his horses were in the same situation, in a southern climate in the hottest months in the year, feeding on pease, and for a considerable time on a short allowance of water. Many of the latter, though in the highest health and vigour when embarked, were now dead and cast into the ocean, and the rest so emaciated as to be utterly unfit for service. His army was landed on the 25th at Elk Ferry, but it could not move. Horses were wanting to supply the places of those that were dead, and time was necessary to recruit the flesh and spirits of those which had survived the voyage. Detained a fortnight by these misfortunes, which were the natural effects of this ill-advised expedition, the army did not march from Pencadder in a body until the 8th of September, when after passing through Newark, Hockeson, and New Garden, it arrived on the 10th at Kennet Square. Washington on the 8th had marched from Wilmington to Chads-Ford, and had taken a strong post on the heights of Brandywine, on the eastern side, about six miles distant from Kennet Square.

Thus declining at the happy juncture to attack an enemy of greatly inferior force, the British general undertook this infatuated voyage. As if he had meant to give the rebel states and congress
time

time to recruit their enfeebled armies, he idly and wantonly wasted *twelve weeks* of that precious time which his duty to his sovereign and his country required to be vigorously employed; he left his enemy, who was *in his fight* at Hillsborough, to combat all the dangers of the elements, and to go in the nearest course 600 miles, and in the course of his traverse sailing more than 2000, to meet that enemy again, posted on stronger ground, and with double their former force.

Various other articles of misconduct are strongly urged against the commander; but it may be sufficient to lay before our readers the recapitulation with which the narrative concludes.

• It seems impossible for a candid inquirer after truth, however painful the task, not to take a brief and collected view of the errors of this campaign. The British General had declined taking the field, because the green forage was not sufficiently grown, although the country produced, and his magazines were stored with, dry and better forage. He had met his enemy at Hillsborough, and though possessed of treble his strength, he would not fight him, or even distress him, by passing the Delaware and taking his magazines. He preferred wasting on his *ill advised* voyage to Chesapeake, three months of his valuable time, which, had they been wisely and vigorously employed, were more than sufficient to suppress the rebellion. He omitted to support general Burgoyne, or even to make a diversion on the coast of Massachusetts Bay in his favour, though he knew such was his majesty's pleasure, and that either measure would have saved the northern army. And he took care not to suffer Sir Henry Clinton to perform those important services, by not leaving him sufficient force, though the rebel army, at that time, consisted of less than one third of his own effective force. And though experience had taught him, that as soon as the operations of the British army took place in the country, the people were so intimidated, that the rebel states attempted to recruit in vain, yet, as if determined to give the congress and new states opportunity and time sufficient to reinforce their armies, he pursued the very measures which Washington himself would have advised for that purpose. He relinquished his operations already begun, and hid his high-spirited army on the ocean. He declined his intended route up the Delaware, at a time when the city of Philadelphia and the fort at Mud Island were not able to oppose him; and thus he gave the enemy full time to put the latter in the most perfect state of defence. He met Washington at Brandywine, on stronger ground, and with a force twice as great as those which he possessed at the mountain above Quibbletown, attacked, defeated, and dispersed his army; and though that army was hemmed in on all sides by British troops, or impassable waters, yet he would not pursue the advantage. He met the same enemy at Goshen, and began the attack, but was diverted from certain victory by a shower of rain. He declined suffering the dykes on the province and Blackeley's Islands to be repaired, though it was a work absolutely necessary to the taking of Mud Island fort. He refused to permit colonel Stirling to take post at Red Bank, though it was the key to that fort, and without the possession of which the rebels could not have defended it a week. He supinely suffered himself to be surprised at Germantown, where the valour and activity of his troops, notwithstanding

notwithstanding the surprise, gained a victory, as honourable to them, as ignominious to their general, who suffered the enemy to escape without effectual pursuit, when they were languid with fatigue, and desponding from their defeat. The same general, after seeming to invite Washington to battle, at White Marsh, pursued every measure that was likely to prevent, and omitted the only one that must inevitably have brought on an engagement.

Both before and since sir William Howe's return from America, his conduct has been repeatedly censured in different publications; but in none more severely than in these Letters. The charges produced are so numerous, that hardly one step in his operations has escaped reprehension; and they are urged with a degree of clearness and force, which cannot fail of affecting the professional reputation of this commander. Amidst the pain we feel in reviewing a pamphlet of this kind, it is some consolation to understand, that the strength of the provincial insurgents is far inferior to what has been frequently represented. From this circumstance there is reason to hope, that, by greater vigour in the prosecution of the war, we at length extinguish a rebellion so pernicious to both countries.

A Proposal for Uniformity of Weights and Measures in Scotland, by Execution of the Laws now in Force. With Tables of the English and Scotch Standards, and of the customary Weights and Measures of the several Counties and Boroughs of Scotland, &c. 8vo. 3s. boards. Cadell.

THIS Proposal commences with a short account of the acts of parliament that have been made for the regulation of weights and measures in England, and particularly of the two made in the year 1765, by which are appointed a standard yard and pound as general measures of extension and weight, and by which provision is made for enforcing a general observance of, and compliance with, those standards in England. Notice is then taken of the necessity of tables for reducing to the standards the numerous weights and measures, now in use; and in favour of this improvement several good reasons are adduced. The author next delivers an account of all the laws and regulations that have been made in Scotland for the use of uniform weights and measures, gradually traced down to the union with England; which account he concludes with these words:

* Thus stood the law before the Union in 1707. It had good effects, in so far as it clearly established what were the standard weights and measures: but as care was not taken to

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ascertain and publish the proportions which the customary weights and measures bore to the standards, the former were not laid aside; and it could not be otherwise. Even the use of the Trone weight, though expressly discharged by the act of 1618, was continued as before.

‘ The diversity of the whole at this day, not only in the different counties, but in different parts of the same county, is well known, and appears in a striking light in the annexed tables.

‘ By the 17th article of the Union, in 1707, it was enacted. “ That the same weights and measures shall be used throughout the united kingdom as are now established in England; and that standards of weights and measures shall be kept by those boroughs in Scotland, to whom the keeping the standards of weights and measures does of special right belong: all which standards shall be sent down to such boroughs from the standards kept in the exchequer at Westminster,” &c.

‘ They were sent down accordingly; and they added to the number of our different weights and measures, but did not supersede any of them; probably for the reason above given, that no pains was taken to make the people in general acquainted with their proportion to the Scotch weights and measures.

‘ It is even a remarkable circumstance, that in passing several acts of parliament since the Union, so far from having it in view to carry the 17th article, concerning weights and measures, into execution, it would seem to have been entirely overlooked and forgotten.’

Of this the author subjoins several instances, and then observes,

‘ But, leaving these things, it now remains to be suggested, in what manner the acts of parliament above recited may be put in execution, by which the evils complained of may in a great measure be abated, and perhaps the way paved for obtaining a new and more complete law for this part of the kingdom, and for carrying the 17th article of the Union into execution.’

For this purpose the author lays down several directions, gives answers to objections that may be made to them, endeavours to enforce the whole by many strong reasons, and concludes with the following account of the authorities on which these tables are founded.

‘ To promote this good work, and to make the execution of the laws more uniform and easy, the annexed Tables have been prepared. The materials from which they are made have been collected occasionally by a gentleman who was called

upon by the chairman of the late committee of the house of commons, to give his assistance in forming some clauses which were to have been added to the bills above mentioned, had they been resumed, in order to adapt them to this part of the united kingdom. These materials are chiefly reports from the magistrates of the royal boroughs of Scotland, or from the sheriffs of the several counties, or from other learned and judicious persons. They are, however, far from being complete; and though considerable pains have been taken, it is probable, from the nature and difficulty of the thing, that there may be several mistakes. It is well known, that in many counties there is no fixed standard practised, particularly in corn-measures: no two firlots are exactly the same; yet every man will say that his measure is the right one, and that every other person's measure is too large or too little. In such counties also the accounts given by farmers are different from the accounts given by persons employed to buy corn upon commission for exportation, a thing easily understood. In such cases the medium was the only thing that could be taken, though probably it will be censured by both these classes of people.

There is, besides, a source of error which could not easily be avoided; and that is the diversity of the pint-measure, as to which the reports were not always precise. Where no difference was expressed, it must be supposed that the standard-pint was meant.

With regard to the tables, they are divided into two sets. The first contains the standards of England and Scotland, with their proportions to each other, and tables of conversion for applying these proportions, with some other general tables which may be of use.

The second set contains the customary weights and measures of the several counties and boroughs in Scotland.

Considerable pains have been taken to make the calculations exact. This was the work of an able and ingenious accountant, who gave his assistance to that part.

Afterwards follow the tables, which are numerous and apparently very accurate, and are intermixed with many notable remarks; and at the end are subjoined conjectures concerning the ancient standards of measures and weights in Scotland.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Caroli Casp. Siebold Historia Lithotomiae in eodem Homine bis factae, cum ejus Restitutione. 4to. with cuts. Wurzburg.

SKILL, cautiousness, and fortitude of mind are equally conspicuous in the history of this very difficult and successful operation. It was performed after Le Cat's method. Dr. S. introduced his forceps on the conductor into the bladder, and found the stone forced so far
 ol. XLVIII. Aug. 1779. L down

down into the neck, that he was obliged to force it back. He then seized it, turned it on its various sides, and tried every means of extracting it. Notwithstanding all his caution and skill, it broke into a hundred pieces. Some of these were extracted; but he soon perceived that they were only fragments of the crust, whose nucleus still remained entire. This was then also extracted; and the great number of remaining fragments at length got out, partly by the forceps, and partly by injections; in short he saw himself under the dreadful necessity of introducing his instruments above forty times into these very sensible parts. The patient groaned and cried in the most piteous manner, and reproached the operator in the bitterest terms. Dr. S's friends were despairing, his enemies smiling; some of the spectators fainting away; of thirty spectators every one successively stole away except three; yet he continued undaunted, and told a physician, one of his despairing friends; the operation is accurately performed, and we must not despair of success. The cure of the wound was a tedious and difficult task; and it is minutely related from day to day. Some months after the patient was dismissed from the hospital. But a year afterwards he was again attacked, and so dreadfully tortured by another stone, that he was resolved to submit to another operation; which was successfully performed in seven minutes; and the patient dismissed after one month in perfect health, which he still enjoys. Physicians and surgeons will find it worth their while to peruse this accurate account.

Briefe über Russland: or Letters on Russia; by J. H. C. Meyer, Lieutenant in the Hannoverian Regiment of Foot, Saxe-Gotha. Part 1. 8vs. Goettingen. (German.

THIS collection consists of twenty letters, and affords a mixed variety of curious and useful information, partly derived from the author's own observations during his residence in Russia, and partly collected from various works of other writers. Mr. M. has followed no fixed plan, but conducted his readers, from Kamtschatka to the emigration of the Calmouks, the Commerce on the Black Sea, the Russian Colonies; the Calmouk code of laws; the Museum of Natural Curiosities at Petersburg; the Russian Manufactures; the City of Petersburg, the rates of duties at the custom-house; and the population of Russia. But he has every where either interspersed some interesting remarks, or corrected some erroneous accounts of that vast empire.

The revenue of the Russian empire are here estimated at thirty millions of roubles; the crown revenue from the gold and silver mines at one million and a half; and the paper-money circulating in the empire at nearly sixty millions of roubles; though as this latter estimate seems to be founded chiefly on the *numeros* of the bank-notes: it may be doubted whether a series of the whole supposed number of bank-notes has ever been actually issued, or whether the *numeros* have not been marked larger on purpose to facilitate the detection of forged bank-notes.

The ships dock at Cronstadt is said to be excellent, and superior to the Dutch and English docks; and capable of containing sixteen men of war.

In 1775, an establishment for the education of young Greeks was made, whose annual expence amounts to 41,613 roubles.

The daily pay of the Russian soldier, is three poluscas (a polusca is £0. 0. $\frac{2}{3}$) but as it is issued only once a quarter, it is commonly

monly expended on the first days, on brandy, and becomes the source of excesses in numerous garrisons.

Petersburgh has eighty manufactories of various kinds: and Moscow as many more, and among these there are eleven of cloth; besides these there are fifty-three other cloathing manufactories in the empire which fabricate coarse cloths to the amount of half a million of roubles per ann.

The whole empire, except Livonia and Esthonia, has only sixteen printing-houses; of which twelve are in Petersburgh and Moscow.

The number of all the convents in the Russian empire, is here said to amount to 458; that of all the churches, to 19,435.

Portugiesische Grammatik; or Portuguese Grammar, 8vo. Frankfurt on the Oder. (German.

MR. de Junk, the author of this Grammar, was in 1762 in Portugal with the late count de Schauenburg Lippe, and commanded a body of troops of his own raising. He enquired for maps of Portugal, and for Portuguese grammars, and found neither: and after having made many enquiries and careful collections, resolved on writing a Portuguese grammar himself, which he has now published for the use of Germans, with the usual appendages of a vocabulary and dialogues.

But it is chiefly on account of some very curious memoirs of Portuguese literature, and of books written on Portugal, prefixed to his grammar that we here take notice of his publication.

From these it seems that the historical academy, founded by King John the fifth, have hitherto performed nothing, except swearing on the immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary. The achievements of some other Portuguese academies, appear rather worse than nothing; they are a disgrace to, and have thrown a ridicule on the nation, by such disquisitions as: 'What part of the human body, after having been for ages entirely indifferent, is now become most interesting to the state?—Answer—The nose; since tobacco is become a royal revenue.' The determination that the fight is no noble sense; because, forsooth; 'beati qui non viderunt.' The dispute concerning the vulgar Portuguese name of the insect noctiluca, cagalume, (light flitter,) was settled in two folio volumes; wherein the proposed name of pyrilampo was rejected, as being rather quaint, and the appellations of nouteluz, and bicho luzente adopted in its place: and these two important folios are dedicated to—God the Father, God the Son, and God the Holy Ghost, in three different dedications.

From an abstract of A. Machado's Bibliotheca Lusitana, in which every Portuguese publication, however short and trifling, is enumerated, it appears that Portugal, with all its subject provinces and settlements, has, from the beginning of the christian æra to the year 1759, produced no more than 5592 writers, and 12435 books and pamphlets.

These books are arranged under their respective heads. Among those of divinity we meet with two Lives of Christ in Mary's Womb; with a Life of the Virgin Mary in her Mother Anna's Womb, and an epic poem on Mary's Conception.—Among those of Law, with a *Venus Juridica*. Our author also takes notice of a Portuguese Dictionary in ten volumes folio, by father Bluteau, a Frenchman, born in Ireland. St. Anthony still continues field marshal general

of Portugal. It seems government could not, in 1706, find a subject fit for that important command, and therefore preferred a saint from the Romish calendar. But as by the Portuguese military institutions, no personage whatever could rise to the chief command but by due, gradual, and successive promotion; the saint's statue was at first dressed like a common soldier, the next day like a non-commissioned officer, and thus quickly rose to the supreme military dignity of field-marshal general, the pay of one hundred and fifty ducats, and the honour of being carried before the army in a post-chaise. Unfortunately the very first cannon ball from the duke of Berwick's army, chanced to carry the holy commander's head off, and the Portuguese army instantly scampered away. Even now the king is said to carry the saint's annual pay in a bourse of red velvet, to his field-marshal general's chapel.

Both the Portuguese writers and books may be easily known and enumerated, from the strict censure, and a variety of permissions required before any publication: and books in Portugal are scarce and dear.

Mémoires Historiques et Géographiques sur la Valachie, avec un Prospectus d'un Atlas Géographique & Militaire de la dernière Guerre entre la Russie et la Porte Ottomane. Publiés par M. de B. 8vo. Francfort & Leipzig.

DURING the late war between Russia and the Porte, the Russian field marshal general De Baur ordered thirty-nine very accurate maps and plans to be drawn up, of Moldavia, Walachia, and all the other countries then invaded by the Russian armies: of these, six exhibit Moldavia; four, Walachia; two, a part of Podolia and Volhynia; two, the Crimea; two, Bulgaria; three, the Hellespont; and the remaining will contain delineations of battles, attacks, and sieges. All these maps and plans are to be engraved at the field-marshal's expence, by the celebrated J. Varo der Schley, at Amsterdam, and to be published by subscription by Henry Lewis Broenner, a bookseller at Francfort.

The present Memoirs are designed as an illustration of the maps of Walachia; they have been drawn up from the archives of the hospodar, and those of the bojars, and the convents of that country, by two native Walachian ministers of state, prince Kantagusin, and the great logofet or chancellor of Wallachia; and may of course be deemed an authentic performance.

Wallachia is here laid down between $39^{\circ} 25'$ and $45^{\circ} 39'$ of longitude, and from $43^{\circ} 40'$ to $45^{\circ} 50'$ of latitude.

Its mountains are said to contain gold, silver, and other metals; but no mines are worked; not only from the indolence of the natives, who being plentifully supplied with the necessaries of life, have no great occasion for money; but also from certain measures necessary for the hospodar's security. Even the old copper and iron mines are now entirely abandoned, and that of salt is only worked from absolute necessity. The quantity of gold found in the rivers is so considerable, as to constitute a part of the revenue of the hospodar's prince's consort.

The Walachians are in fact Roman colonists; their numbers decrease annually very fast. They are indolent and poor; very jealous among each other, though not to strangers; hospitable; not prone to crimes; and utterly ignorant of all arts and sciences. The whole learning of their clergy is confined to the elements of reading

reading and writing. Some merchants speak German; some physicians, Italian; but the court and people of fashion, speak the Turkish language. The only manufactory at Bukarest was established by German colonists, and soon after abandoned.

Their only trades are carried on by Armenians, Jews, and Gypsies. The natives support themselves by pasturage; and neglect even agriculture. They export salt provisions, hides, butter, honey, excellent horses, and wine, chiefly to Constantinople; and that populous capital mostly subsists on Walachian provisions.

The ministers and officers of state were formerly styled bojars, but now, *agari* and *sedari*, after the Turkish manner; they consist of three distinct classes, and their descendants are styled mazils and niamurs, and enjoy some prerogatives and privileges that raise them above the bulk of the people; their widows also enjoy pensions from the court. In 1730, they lost the right of electing the hospodars.

The clergy are under the direction of the two bishops of Rimnik and Buseo, and of a metropolitan; and the convents depend on their mother convents situated in Syria, on mount Athos, and in other provinces of Turkey; and some of them on the patriarchs at Jerusalem, Antioch, and Alexandria.

The constitution still retains many traces of the Greek government; but the hospodar's court is entirely modelled on the Turkish system of administration, and oppressed by a great number of useless court officers.

Taxation rose to the highest pitch under the hospodar Constantine Maurocordato, in 1739; who, in order to maintain himself in his government, submitted to pay an excessive tribute to the grand signor, and the grand vizir; which was in 1761 skewed up to the sum of half a million of lion-dollars for the sultan, and 125,000 for the vizir. In 1759, the revenue of the state amounted to 2,546,828 lion-dollars; in 1766, to 1,808,920; and in 1767, to 2,021,182; raised under various heads of taxation, which are here very distinctly enumerated: the expence of government amounted in 1766 to 1,718,021 lion-dollars; of these the hospodar's consort received 32,000 for the support of her own court establishment; and her Gypsies paid her, besides the gold dust collected in the rivers, a capitation amounting to 3,340 lion-dollars. But these taxes by far exceed the means of the subjects, and prove the cause of numerous emigrations. The subjects are entirely at the mercy of the hospodar; who often exempts not only individuals, but whole classes of the people, the clergy, for instance, from their payment.

Il Pentateuco o sia i cinque Libri di Mose, secondo la Volgata tradotti in Lingua Italiana e con Annotazioni illustrati; 3 vols. Del Vecchio Testamento tradotto in Lingua Volgare, Tomo IV. (containing the Books of Joshua, Judges, and Ruth.) Tomo V. (the Books of Samuel.) Tomo VI. (the Two Books of Kings.) 8vo. Turin. By A. Martini, Abb. di Giacomo.

THIS sensible and respectable translator warmly recommends, in his preface, the study of the Bible to every reader, of whatever rank, condition, or sex, as the best preservative against the infidelity now also prevailing apace in Italy. It is well known, that the general study of the Bible has for a long time, and for obvious reasons,

sions, been discouraged by the Roman Catholic clergy. From the preface, and the permissions of the book-censors, it appears that the Congregation of the Index enacted on the 13th of June, 1757, a very remarkable decree, confirmed by pope Benedict XIV. and purporting:

‘Quod si hujusmodi Bibliorum versiones vulgari lingua fuerint ab apostolica sede approbatæ, aut editæ cum annotationibus desumptis ex sanctis ecclesiæ patribus, vel ex doctis catholicisque viris, conceduntur.’

This decree, therefore, prescribes two conditions, either of whom a translator must chuse, in order to prevent the prohibition of his Version or Commentary on the Bible. He either must submit his performance to a very arbitrary and tedious scrutiny, during which the very best parts of it may possibly, or rather will probably, be expunged; or he must incumber it with a heavy load of notes, compiled from the works of preceding and approved Catholic writers, and consequently render his version too voluminous and too expensive for the generality of readers. This latter method, however, our Italian translator has judiciously preferred, as the safer. His text exhibits the Vulgata with parallelisms, and his Italian version, printed in two columns on each page; to which the notes have been subjoined. The translation is an exact and literal one, from the Vulgata, and consequently presents the same mistakes, the same additions, and omissions, and the same erroneous divisions. The nature and merits of the compiled notes will easily appear, from the nature and necessity of the plan adopted by the compiler. He justly repeats after Hieronymus: “Numquam me ipsum habui magistrum.”

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

Collection complete des Oeuvres de Charles Bonnet. Vol. I. II. III. 4ta. Neufchatel.

AS the several works of this excellent and instructive writer are generally and sufficiently known, from their preceding editions, we shall here content ourselves with taking notice, that the first volume of this complete collection contains his *Traité d’Insectologie*, and his *Observations diverses sur les Insectes*; the second, his *Mémoires d’Histoire Naturelle*, and his *Récherches sur l’Usage des Feuilles*; the third, his *Considérations sur les Corps Organisés*. That the present edition is greatly improved throughout, and enriched with numberless observations made since the former editions of these works, by other eminent natural philosophers, such as Messrs. Needham, Jacobi, Gleditsch, Koelreuter, Herissant, Bourgelat, De Geer, Fermin, Allamand, Trembley, Saussure, Fontana, Roffredi, Schæffer, Schirach, Debray, Beguelin, Muller, Calandrin, Corti, Buffon, Batigne, and chiefly, Abbate Spallanzani, and the late M. De Haller. All these recent observations have by our author been appreciated with exquisite judgment and candour, and the purest and most amiable love of truth, applied to the confirmation, correction, or confutation of his own former positions, and improved for the advancement of true natural philosophy.

La Poetica di Q. Orazio Flacco, restituita all’Ordine suo e tradotta in Terzine, con Prefazione Critica e Note. 8vo. Rome.

Signor P. Ant. Petrini, like too many other commentators, supposes Horace’s Epistle to have been intended for a complete

plete and very methodical didactic poem on the art of poetry in all its extent. He therefore takes his critical knife, and dissects the whole performance into small parts, *disjuncti membra poetæ*, and then joins them together according to his arbitrary plan. He seems not to have been acquainted with Dr. Hurd's Commentary. His poetical version is a free and loose one; and his performance evinces considerable, though mistaken, ingenuity.

C. Cornelii Taciti *Opera cum Varietate Lectionum selecta, novisque Emendationibus. Accedunt Notæ & Index Historicus. Studiis Societatis Bipontinæ.* 8vo. Deux-Ponts.

This first volume of a new, critical, correct, and elegant edition of the Works of Tacitus, contains the first six books of his Annals, and exhibits a good specimen of the new edition of classics proposed by a very learned society at Deux-Ponts.

Caroli a Linne, *Equitis, Systema Plantarum secundum Classes, Ordines, Genera, Species. Editio Novissima. Pars I.* (778 Pages 8vo.) Francfort on the Main.

The first volume of a complete, correct, and valuable edition of Linnæus' Works, enriched and improved throughout by the present learned and accurate editor Dr. John James Reichard.

Om Chemiens nyaste Framsteg; or, a Discourse on the latest Progress of Chemistry; by Professor Torbern Bergman. 8vo. Stockholm. (Swedish.)

A concise, but accurate and useful review of the interesting improvements made of late years, in chemistry.

Materia Medica e Regno Vegetabili sistens simplicia Officinalia pariter de Culinaria; secundum Systema Sexuale. 8vo. Stockholm.

By Peter Jonas Bergius, professor of natural history and pharmacy at Stockholm. The chief merit of this new Materia Medica, consists in its historical part, which contains many original and useful observations.

Dissertatio Physica de Aere, ejus Speciebus, præcipue de Aere fixo Lapidis calcarei. 4to. Zurich.

Containing a just account of the general properties of air, and of the late discoveries concerning its various species, enriched with the drawing of a very simple apparatus for extracting air from a variety of bodies.

Principj generali delle Belle Lettere e Bell' Arti; e Trattato del Sublime e del Naturale nelle Belle Lettere. 8vo. Lausanne.

An elegant, though not entirely accurate, translation of some of the works of the celebrated philosopher Mr. Moses Mendelson.

Epoques raisonnées sur la Vie d'Albert de Haller. 8vo. Leipzig.

By count Maximilian de Lamberg, the well-known author of the Memorial d'un Mondain; who formerly was one of Mr. de H.'s correspondents. His present performance abounds with the same ingenuity, acuteness, exuberant fancy, epigrammatical wit, and quaintness and affected obscurity of diction, as his former work; and is interspersed with a variety of anecdotes, and of reflexions peculiar to the noble author.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C A L.

Observations on a Pamphlet, entitled, A Short History of Opposition, during the last Session of Parliament. With a Postscript to the Author. 8vo. 2s. 6d. W. Davis.

IT is the general character of literary opponents, especially in political subjects, that they are more disposed to combat the principles of their antagonist than to ascertain the truth with impartiality.

The author of the History having occasionally appealed to the speeches of certain members in both houses of parliament, for the inferences he deduced, the observator either totally denies the authorities, or endeavours to exculpate the patriotic orators from the imputed implication of some expressions which they are said to have used. As we cannot, at present, have recourse to the authorities above mentioned, we shall not enter upon a determination of the dispute; but so far as we can trust our remembrance of those fugitive pieces of declamation, we believe that the author of the History has, in general, given a fair representation of them.

Though we cannot allow great force to the remarks of the observator, which are mostly little else than quibbling, it would be unjust to refuse him altogether the merit of ingenuity and address. He has prudently selected for animadversion, such passages in the History as seemed the most fit for being wrested into a defence of the conduct of opposition. He always has recourse to raillery where he cannot refute; and he affects to triumph over his antagonist without having obtained any victory. It may, however, be some apology, that he informs us, he is a humble *retainer* of the public, his *duty* calls him to write, and he *must* obey.

Guatimozin's Letters on the present State of Ireland, and the Right of binding it by British Acts of Parliament, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. E. Johnson.

These Letters were first published in one of the Dublin newspapers a few months ago. They contain a warm exhortation to the people of Ireland, respecting the plan of consuming, exclusively, the manufactures of their own country; with an examination into England's right of imperial sovereignty over Ireland; a point which the author, with the zeal of a strenuous Hibernian, absolutely denies. The public distresses of Ireland have been for some time the subject of much complaint, and are certainly entitled to the strictest attention of the legislature; nor, after the declaration of the British ministry, in the last session of parliament, can a doubt remain that they will be deliberately investigated as soon as possible. Mean time, it is a duty incumbent on every loyal inhabitant of each country to preserve that mutual attachment, so conducive to the interests of both nations, and not to excite internal animosities, when we ought unanimously to concur in our efforts against the common enemy.

D I V I.

D I V I N I T Y.

Christian Fortitude particularly recommended in Times of Danger.

A Sermon preached at the Chapel-Royal, St. James's, on Sunday, July 4, 1779. By S. Glaspey, D. D. 8vo. 6d. Rivington.

A plain, practical discourse, intended to shew the pernicious consequence of self-confidence on one hand, and despondency on the other; or to recommend a spirited exertion of our best abilities, together with a constant dependence on divine Providence in times of national danger.

A Sermon preached on Board his Majesty's Ship Prince of Wales, on the Victory gained over the French Fleet and Army at St. Lucia, Dec. 1778. By the rev. James Ramsey. 4to. Printed at St. Christophers.

From these words, Deut. xxxii. 29, 30.—‘O, that they were wise, that they understood this! How should one chase a thousand, and two put ten thousand to flight,’—the author takes occasion to make some cursory observations on a superintending Providence, the connection between duty and happiness, the harmony and intrepidity of those brave officers, seamen, and soldiers, who gained the victory over the French fleet and army at St. Lucia; concluding with exhortations to the auditors, as soldiers and as christians.

A Sermon preached at the primary Visitation of the right reverend Beilby Lord Bishop of Chester, in the Cathedral Church, on Thursday, August 13, 1778. By Thomas Townson, B. D. 4to. 1s. Bathurst.

This learned writer illustrates his text---‘They were astonished at his doctrine, for his word was with power,’ Luke iv. 32—by shewing, that there was a remarkable propriety in our Saviour's manner of teaching; that he generally took his allusions from present occurrences, and surrounding objects; that he accommodated his instructions to the taste of an oriental audience, who delighted in figurative and allegorical representations; that he sometimes veiled the mysteries of the kingdom of heaven, with a certain degree of present obscurity, for the punishment of the obdurate and unbelieving; but, at the same time, explained his meaning with so much clearness, that they who had ears to hear, might still be edified; that he sometimes made his parables a vehicle of reproof, but with divine gentleness, where charity could hope, that offenders might be so reclaimed; as the parable of the Merciful Samaritan; and that, where the case did not demand severity, he stated his parables in the most favourable manner: as, the Parable of the Ten Virgins, where he supposes as many wise as foolish; that of the Talents, where he says, two were good and faithful servants, and only one unprofitable; and that of the Marriage-Feast, where, he observes, that only one, in a large company, wanted a wedding garment.

From the manner of our Saviour's teaching, the author proceeds to the matter; and remarks, that we find in his doctrine

no subtle questions, no nice or curious speculations; but the most essential principles of morality and religion; the real terms of acceptance, faith and obedience, pressed upon the hearts of his hearers in the most earnest and affectionate manner.—He concludes with observations on the power, which the word of Christ derived from his example, and his miracles.

The public are obliged to this learned and judicious author for a work of considerable extent, mentioned in our Review for August, 1778, intitled, *Discourses on the Four Gospels*.

Preparation for Death. A Sermon preached at the Interment of Mr. Samuel Knight, by Thomas Reader. 12mo. 3d. Buckland. Pious.

A Sermon preached at the Chapel in Deal, on the Festival of St. John the Baptist, June 24, 1779. By the rev. Brother James Smith, 8vo. 6d. Wilkie.

The preacher considers the obligations of the society to brotherly love, as men, as christians, and as free-masons. In discoursing on the last of these heads he tells us, 'that the general depravity and incapacity of mankind have made it expedient to *yle* or conceal, their mysteries, or sublime truths, by hieroglyphic and symbolical representations, to prevent their becoming familiar, common, and contemptible.'

If this be the only reason for *tiling* the secrets of free-masonry, it is just as good a one, as that of the papists, for *tiling* the New Testament.

CONTROVERSIAL.

A Letter to the rev. Benjamin Fawcett, M. A. occasioned by his Pamphlet, intitled, Candid Reflections on the different Manner in which the Learned and Pious have expressed their Conceptions concerning the Doctrine of the Trinity. 8vo. 6d. Buckland,

This writer complains, that Mr. Fawcett has represented the Trinitarians and their doctrine in an unfavourable light; that he has unjustly depreciated the character of Calvin and other divines; that he has betrayed a want of charity towards some of his brethren, and an inclination to lessen their reputation, and divert them from 'their serious endeavours to establish their friends in the belief of those truths, which they esteem the glory of the gospel.'—This is the production of a well meaning writer, rather than a learned controversialist.

P O E T R Y.

Edwy and Edilda; a Tale. In Five Parts. 8vo. 3s. Doddsley.

Edwy is supposed to be the son of Hilda, a poor widow. Edilda is the daughter of Galvan, a baron of eminent worth and opulence. Edwy rescues Galvan from a wolf; and Galvan takes the gallant youth to his palace. A reciprocal love commences between Edwy and Edilda; but their marriage is prevented by several obstacles, apparently insurmountable. Edwy

is at last discovered to be the son of Oswald, an ancient nobleman of great distinction; who, in the earlier part of his life had been the friend and companion of king Egbert. On this discovery, the two lovers are united; but immediately afterwards, Edwy is assassinated by a cruel and malignant rival; and Edilda expires in anguish over her bleeding husband.

These are the outlines of the story, which the author, by a variety of incidents, has extended to a hundred and seventy pages. The following account of Edilda's sensations, when the news arrived at her father's palace, that Edwy was the son and heir of the noble Oswald, will give our readers a sufficient idea of the author's style and manner.

- * But while the wond'rous tale he told,
Th' emotions who could speak,
That swam in sweet Edilda's eye,
And flush'd her father's cheek?
- * With him 'twas pleasure and surprise,
Unblent with doubt or care;
With her 'twas transport beating high,
Yet mix'd with trembling fear.
- * Unthought-of joys his aged breast
With temper'd feelings move;
But her's with all the tumult throbs
Of extasy and love.
- * Could nature bear the strong reverse,
And still her course maintain?
She could not: bliss o'erstrain'd become
Intolerable pain.
- * Thick and more thick her sighs exhale,
Her pulse forgets to play;
And in her father's arms at length
She senseless sunk away.

This kind of stanza is now become trite; and, consequently, not so agreeable to the reader, as when it had the recommendation of novelty. Yet any one, who is not too critical and fastidious, may find his attention excited, and his sensibility awakened by the perusal of this melancholy tale.

Miscellaneous Poems, by Mr. Evan Clark, 8vo. Printed at Whitehaven.

Modesty is a virtue in every one, particularly in a writer, who solicits the favour of the public, without any extraordinary title to such an honourable distinction. The author of these *Miscellaneous Poems* very candidly acknowledges, that he is 'one of the meanest of the tuneful train;' that he has not been blessed with a liberal education; that his pieces were composed in the little intervals of leisure, which he could occasionally steal from sleep, or from a laborious employment; and that the ultimate object of his wish is 'twenty-five pounds a year.' When the poet addresses his readers with so much diffidence and humility,

lity, it would be cruel to disturb his little system of happiness, by any severe animadversions; more especially as he appears, in many of his pieces, to possess a tolerable share of fancy, taste, and genius. The following Ode to Sleep, among others, deserves to be mentioned with approbation.

' Sleep to thee I tune my lay,
Calmer of the noisy day;
Thou! whose balm-bestowing hand
Sheds sweet comfort o'er the land.

' Stretch'd beneath thy healing reign,
Rest the toilers of the plain;
Slaves forget their clanking chains,
Sighing lovers all their pain.

' Now the warblers of the groves,
Cease their sonnets, cease their loves,
Clinging to the tottering spray,
Dream the songs shall wake the day.

' Cattle now their eye-lids close,
Taste the sweets of sound repose;
Happy! if they view in dreams,
Flowery pastures, flowing streams.

' Forests, on the mountain's brow,
Hang tremendous to the view,
Nodding, awful, high in air,
Seem the gen'ral rest to share.

' Air's gossip, from her empty cell,
Not one story now can tell;
Not a whisper, not a strain,
Can she catch o'er all the plain.'

Some of these pieces are written in the Cumberland dialect.
This volume is honoured by a respectable list of subscribers.

An Elegy on the Antient Greek Model. Addressed to the right reverend Robert Lowth, Lord Bishop of London. 4to. 1s. 6d.
T. Payne.

The Greek Elegies, to which the author of this piece particularly alludes, are those of Solon, the celebrated legislator; of which some fragments are preserved by Diogenes Laertius, &c. *Ἀνδρῶν ἐκ μεγάλων πολλὰς ὁλλύσαι*, was one of the maxims of this ancient sage; and our author seems to have adopted his political creed; for though he professes himself a warm admirer of the learned prelate, to whom he addresses his Elegy, he is afraid, lest his lordship should

' Stain his glory by a servile sound;
and is chagrined, that he should, in a late discourse,

' Stretch the state-theorist * on priesthood's rack,
And from the pulpit aim the personal attack.'

* Dr. Price.

An Elegy on Winter, and other Poems : To which is added, An Inscription to the Memory of the late Lord Lyttelton. By John Jones. 4to. 1s. Buckland.

This publication consists of an Elegy to Winter, an American Elegy, an Ode to Masonry, Lines written in the Poet's Walk in Hagley-Park, addressed to Lord Lyttelton, and about half a dozen smaller pieces.

In most of them, particularly the two elegies, there is a poetic spirit, and an unaffected simplicity of style.

An Epistle from a young Lady to an Ensign in the Guards, upon his being ordered to America. 4to. 1s. Sewell.

This young lady, who is a nymph of easy virtue, pathetically laments the fate of her Adonis; describes some of his feminine qualifications; relates one of his nocturnal exploits; bids him a tender adieu; and then dresses for the play.

The poetry of this piece is better than the hero seems to deserve.

D R A M A T I C.

The Flitch of Bacon; a Comic Opera, in Two Acts: as it is performed at the Theatre-Royal in the Hay-market. By the rev. Hen. Bate. 8vo. 1s. Evans.

The characters in this comic opera are, Major Benbow, Justice Benbow, Captain Greville, Captain Wilson, Tipple, Kilderkin, Ned; and Eliza the daughter of Justice Benbow, married to Captain Greville. The scene, Danmow Priory.

The happy couple, that come in disguise to claim the reward of conjugal fidelity, are Greville and Eliza, who had been married without the consent of Justice Benbow, and, on that account had been excluded from the Priory. When Benbow has given the supposed strangers his solemn benediction, and the ceremony is concluded, Eliza throws off her veil to the astonishment of her father. This instantly produces a reconciliation; and the day is spent in mutual happiness and festivity.

There is as much plot, humour, and comic character in this piece as can well be expected in an entertainment of this nature.

Gallie Gratitude, or the Frenchman in India. A Comedy in two Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal in Covent-Garden. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

A villainous and impudent French valet is the object of this dramatic satire. The character is drawn with some humour, and the story tolerably well calculated to excite the reader's curiosity. The plan is said to be taken from a little French farce of one act, intitled *Le Naufrage*, written by M. Lafont, and published in 1710.

The Cobler of Castlebury. A Musical Entertainment of Two Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal in Covent-Garden. 8vo. 1s. Kearsley.

Probably the production of a member of the respectable community of cobblers and translators; the humour, however, if it pos-

possesses any, is so buried under the parings of the stall, that it is very difficult to discover it.

M E D I C A L.

The Medical Register for the Year 1779. 4s. sewed. Murray.

The design of this work is to facilitate medical correspondence, for which it appears to be well calculated. Besides the list of practitioners, among whom are specified such as are authors, with their several productions, it contains an account of colleges, hospitals, and other medical institutions. The Register is divided into six sections, the first of which is allotted to Great Britain, the second to Ireland, and the third to foreign countries. The fourth contains a descriptive catalogue of English and foreign medical books, published in 1778; the fifth, the medical prizes announced by different foreign academies; and the sixth, a list of deaths. In such a work, especially the first that has appeared of the kind, a number of omissions and errors may be discovered; but it cannot fail of proving useful to practitioners, and even interesting to curiosity.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

A Treatise on watering Meadows. Wherein are shewn some of the many Advantages arising from that Mode of Practice, particularly on coarse, boggy, or barren Lands. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Almon.

While large tracts of heath, and barren uplands have been cultivated in various parts of the kingdom, at an immense expence, it is observed, that hardly any attempt has been made to improve the boggy, low lands, though these might be rendered advantageous to the farmer, at much less charge, by converting them into water meadows. To promote this useful part of agriculture is the design of the present treatise, which begins with a description of the land capable of being watered, and an explanation of the terms, principles, and instruments used in watering meadows. The author afterwards exemplifies the practice recommended by the description of a meadow watered regularly, from a stream running through it; a meadow irregularly watered, the stream passing by the side of it; and a meadow watered by a head main, taken out of the river, a considerable distance above it. The wares, sluices, and various erections, are also distinctly described, and the whole is illustrated with four copper plates.

A Charge delivered in the Lodge of True Friendship, in Bulwark-Street, Dover, on the Festival of St. John the Evangelist, December 27, 1778. By the rev. Brother James Smith. 4to. 1s. Robinson.

Encomiums on the ancient and honourable society of Free Masons, with salutary advice to the brotherhood.

The Seaman's complete Daily Assistant: being an easy and correct Method of keeping a Journal at Sea. Containing Rules for Working the Cases in Plain, Middle Latitude, and Mercator's Sailing, by the Tables of Difference of Latitude and Departure.—And for finding the Latitude, Longitude, Amplitude, and Azimuth, by Observation. Illustrated by a sufficient Number of Examples. Likewise Rules shewing how the Allowances are to be made for Leeway, Variation, Heave of the Sea, Setting of the Currents, &c.—And to Correct the Dead Reckoning by an Observation in all Cases. The New Method of finding the Latitude by Two Altitudes of the Sun; and the finding the Longitude by the Moon's Distance from the Sun, or a fixed Star; rendered easy to any common Capacity. To which are added, the Tables of Difference of Latitude and Departure to 300 Miles Distance; the New Solar Tables, and Tables of Natural Sines; with a larger and more correct Table of the Latitudes and Longitudes of Places than any hitherto published; together with all the Tables necessary for the Seaman's Use in working a Day's Work at Sea. The Whole constructed upon a New Plan. By John Hamilton Moore. 8vo. 31. Robinson.

This title specifies pretty fully the contents of this miscellaneous little work, which contains the principal subjects of a navigator's daily practice, with all the necessary tables, compiled from various works, as Maskelyne's Mariner's Guide, the Nautical Almanac, Robertson's Navigation, &c. without any part of the theory; and it may perhaps be useful to some who cannot purchase those books.

The Universal Directory, or complete Pocket-Assitant, for Merchants, Masters of Ships, Mates, and all Persons concerned in Ships or Shipping of Goods. In Three Parts. Part I. The expeditious Calculator, comprehending an accurate Set of Tables, exhibiting, at one View, the Solid Contents of all Kinds of Packages. Part II. A Series of all other Tables generally useful in Maritime Affairs, viz. Tables shewing the Pay and Number of the Officers in the Royal Navy. Tables for calculating Seaman's Wages in the Royal Navy and in the Merchant Service. Tables of Greenwich-Hospital Duty. Cordage Tables, shewing the Size, Weight, and Number of Threads, in the different Cables or Ropes. Tables of the Weight and Dimensions of Guns and Mortars. Part III. A general System of the Maritime Laws on the most interesting Subjects. Viz. Of Freight. Of Charterparties. Of Demurrage. Of Insurance. Of Salvage. Of Average. Of Quarantine. Of Disbursements, and other Ship-Accounts. Of the Quantity of Powder allowed on-board in the River. Of Privateers, with the Instructions from the Admiralty, &c. &c. &c. With a Collection of Adjudged Cases on Freight, Insurance, Salvage, and Average. By J. Goodfellow. Long 8vo. 8s. Steel.

This very ample title-page gives a sufficient account of this work, which is a convenient *vade mecum* to those for whom it is calculated.

An Appendix to the Treatise on Agistment Tithe. By Thomas Bateman, A. M. 8vo. 3s. Richardson and Urquhart.

This pamphlet contains Copies at large of the Bill, Answers, and Decree in the Court of Exchequer, Easter Term, 1774, in the Cause of Bateman against Aistrup, and others, for the tithe of the agistment of sheep, and of barren and unprofitable cattle. To which is added, a Copy of the Original Endowment, and of the Bill of Costs, from the commencement to the conclusion of the cause, with explanatory notes and observations.

The Appendix merits the notice of such as are interested in affairs of the nature above mentioned.

Descriptions and Figures of Petrifications found in the Quarries, Gravel-Pits, &c. near Bath. By John Walcott, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Matthews.

The lovers of natural history will take pleasure in being furnished with the description and enumeration of the various articles mentioned in this collection; but the elegance of the drawings is not equal to the industry of the gentleman by whom the materials are collected.

The Natural History of English Song-Birds. By Mr. Eleazar Albin. A new Edition, corrected. 8vo. 3s. plain, 7s. coloured. Lowndes.

This author's Natural History of English Song-Birds is held in much esteem for the accuracy of the drawings; and therefore the present edition, which is reduced both in size and price, will doubtless prove acceptable to the public. Besides English Song-Birds, it includes such foreign birds as are usually brought hither, and are valued for their singing. It also treats of their proper management, diseases, and cures.

The Complete Pigeon-Fancier, or a New Treatise on Domestic Pigeons. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Hogg.

This treatise affords much useful information relative to the nature, properties, and management of all the various species of pigeons, which are also accurately described. Besides these particulars, we meet with a copious account of the best methods of erecting and furnishing the Dove-Cote, and of preventing pigeons from leaving their habitations; likewise with remarks on their diet and diseases, and an abstract of the laws respecting pigeons. This treatise will answer the purposes of every reader, who would derive either pleasure or profit from an acquaintance with the subject.

The Frauds of London Detected. By Richard King, Esq. 12mo. 1s. Hogg.

A person who is a stranger in London cannot be too cautious in guarding against the impositions and artifices, daily practised by the multitude of sharpers that infest this metropolis. It is perhaps impossible to specify the numerous frauds which the ingenuity of the profligate may invent; but to be informed of such tricks as are most frequently committed, is no inconsiderable advantage; and for this purpose, the little piece before us, though rudely composed, affords many necessary hints.